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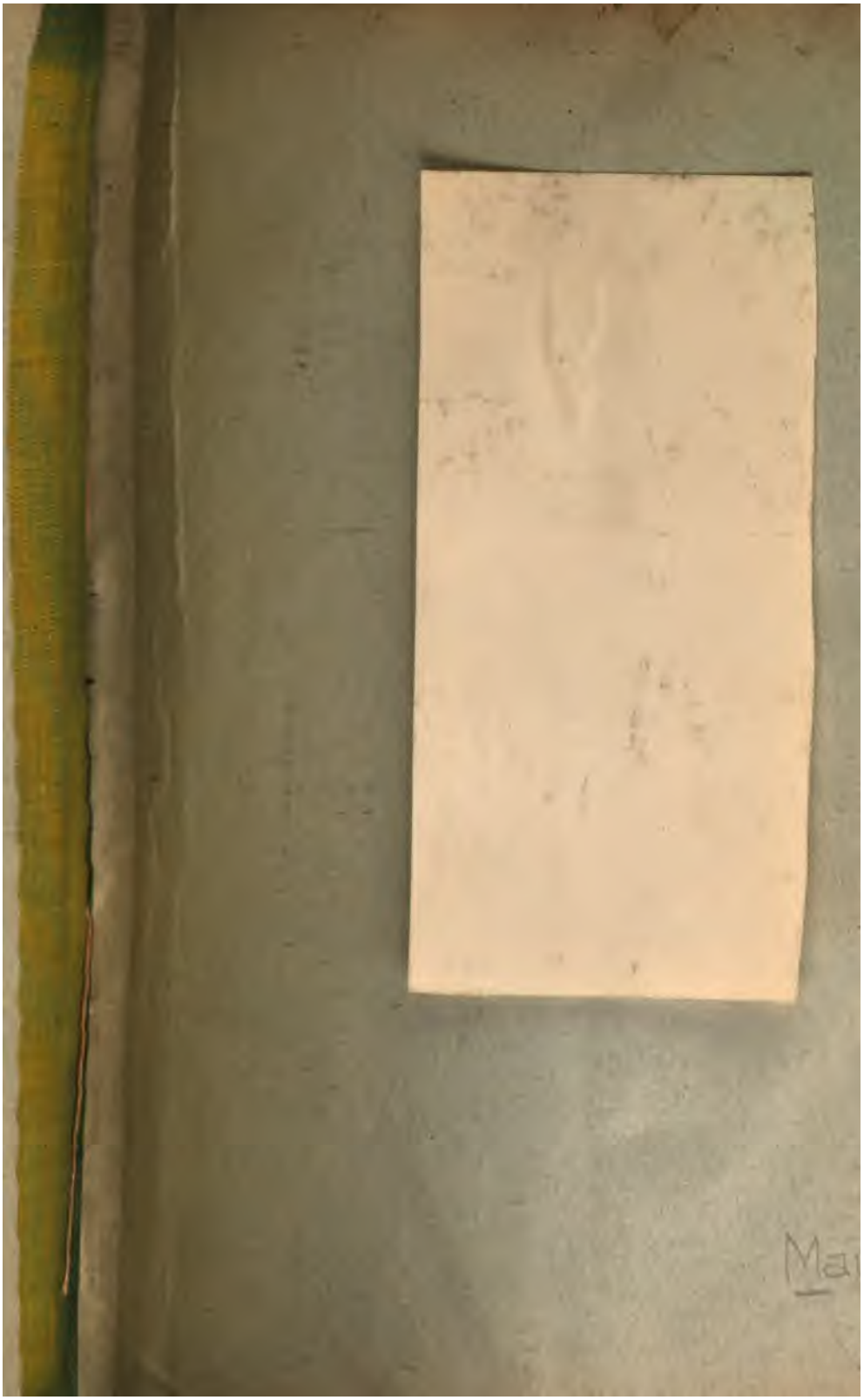

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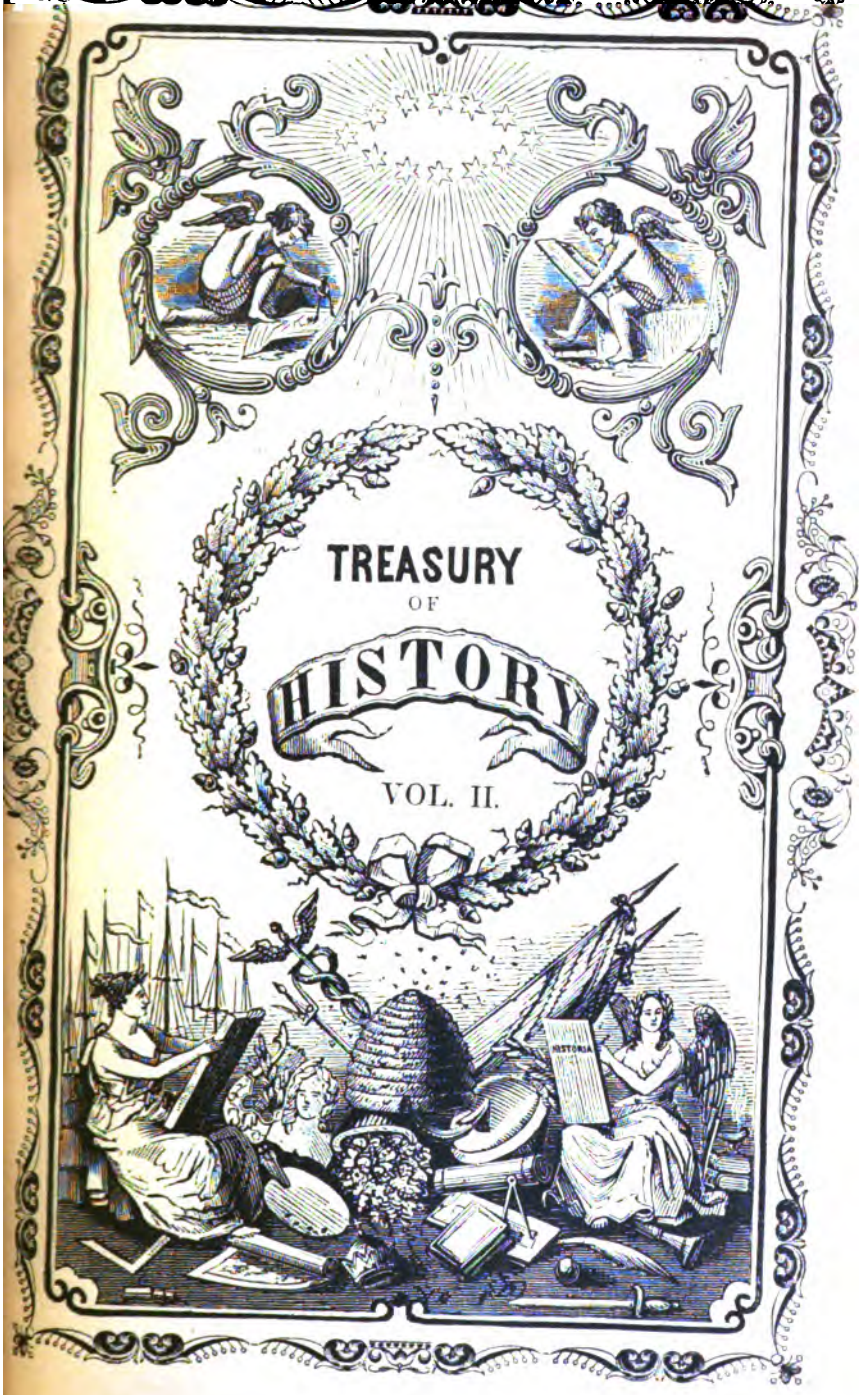

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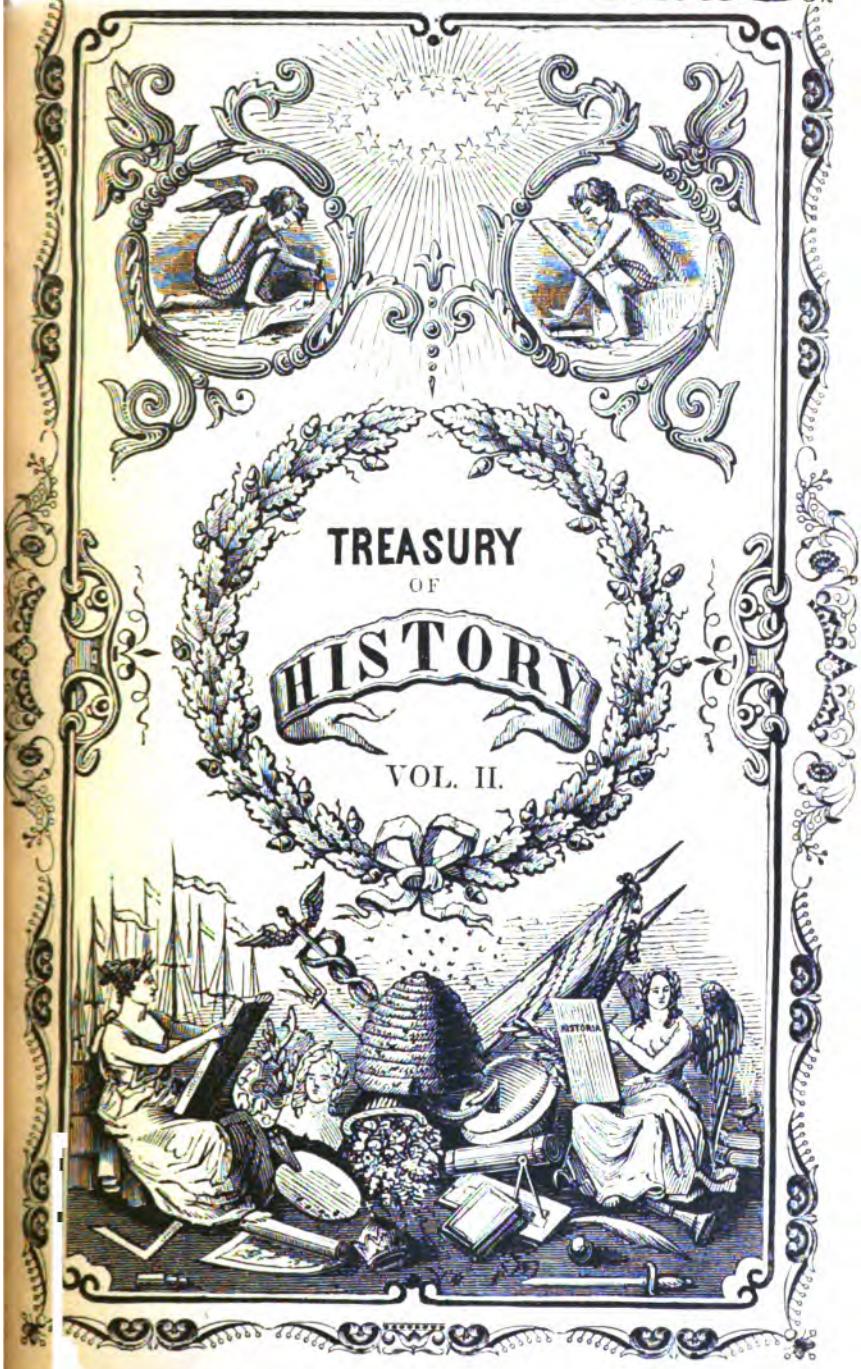

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BY SAMUEL MAUNDER,

Author of "The Treasury of Knowledge," "Biographical Treasury," "Literary and Scientific Treasury, &c., &c.

TO WHICH IS ADDED THE

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES,

EDITED BY JOHN INMAN, Esq.

Ne quid falsi dicere audeat, ne quid veri non audeat historicus."

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A SERIES OF SEPARATE HISTORIES,

(CONTINUED.)

THE HISTORY OF IRELAND.

CHAPTER I.

THERE is no other country in the world the history of which has been written and commented upon in so unjust a temper and tone as that of Ireland. And, strange to say, the persons who have been most frequently wrong in their statement of the evils of Ireland, and their proposals for remedying them, have been precisely those who have made the loudest professions of desire to serve her. It is not worth while to say how much of this mis-statement has arisen from their want of correct information, and how much from a deliberately bad spirit; certain it is, however, that Ireland has few worse enemies than those who in ignorance or in evil temper attribute motives and feelings to England and English statesmen of which they are quite innocent, and who assign for Irish poverty and Irish suffering causes which have really had no part in producing them.

Unwise laws of centuries long passed are quite coolly cited as proof of a partial tyranny of Ireland by England; yet a single glance at English statutes, a single reflection upon the punishments which to a very recent date were allowed to disgust the wise and brutalize the bad, would show that Ireland was not a jot less mercifully governed than Kent or Yorkshire, and that the cruelties of English law, whether administered in London or in Dublin, were no proofs of English dislike of Ireland.

The early history of most countries is so uncertain, that but little more credit is due to it than to any other romance; and when we read of the splendours of a country which during the whole period of its authentic history has been poor; of the power of a country which during all the period of its authentic history has been divided, turbulent, and weak; and of the learning and civilization of a country which even now has less of diffused learning and civilization than any other country in Europe, it is quite consistent with the severest logic and with the utmost charity to look upon the relations of the historian as being founded rather upon fancy than upon fact.

The best authorities agree in stating Ireland to have been peopled from the Spanish colonies of the partly trading and partly piratical Phœnicians; and this statement, credible from the unanimity of authorities otherwise conflicting, is still farther strengthened by the facts of the Phœnicians having been well known to have traded largely with the British isles, and of the frequent finding, even at the present day, of ornaments and utensils which are indubitably of Phœnician manufacture. That gold and silver mines existed in Wicklow and some other parts of Ireland is asserted very positively, but we think with far more positiveness than proof; certain it is, that a recent attempt to find gold in a district in which it was once said to abound, proved to be a complete and lamentable failure. If,

as seems to be certain, Ireland was once colonized by individuals of a people so wealthy as the Phœnicians, that fact would at once account for the valuable articles so frequently recovered from the soil. But it by no means goes to prove that Ireland in the early ages could boast of either learning or civilization of the high order claimed for it. It is not the most refined or most learned class that will venture into far and foreign lands to war with the wild animals, to reclaim the morass, and to level the primeval forest. The hardiest, the rudest, the least civilized, those who have the most to hope for and the least to lose or to fear, are the men who usually go forth to colonize strange lands; and the Phœnicians who seized upon Ireland as their abiding place, were in all human probability the hardy and resolute rovers of the sea for many a long and strife-ful year before they became dwellers upon and cultivators of the land. That they came from Phœnicia, a civilized, ingenious, and wealthy land, proves literally nothing as to their own civilization or their own wealth, as any one may perceive who will take the trouble to observe the majority of the colonists who leave the civilized and luxurious nations of our own day, to build cities in the desert, and to place palaces and thronged marts stored with costly wares, where, even within the memory of man, the dense forest sheltered only the wild animal or the scarcely less savage man.

The Phœnician colonies of Spain were at once eager speculators and bold seamen; visiting the British coast as traders, especially in order to procure tin, they could scarcely fail to admire the soil and climate of Ireland, and could have but little difficulty in subduing or destroying the mere handful of poor and all but actually savage aborigines, who *must* have been a mere handful, destitute as they were of commerce or manufactures, and warring, as we know that they did at a much later date, with the wolf and the hill-fox who disputed the swamp and the forest with them.

When historians tell us that splendidly-manufactured and extremely costly articles are frequently excavated from the Irish soil, we do not dispute the accuracy of the statement, but we deny its cogency as proving that the early colonists of Ireland were learned, or civilized, or even wealthy. A magnificent ornament or a costly and ingenious machine taken from France or England to the arid desert of Africa or the swampy flat of the Swan river, would prove that the country had been visited by people from a wealthy and civilized land, but certainly not that the individuals were themselves either the one or the other; in short, as a general rule, the very fact of emigration would be decisive on the opposite state of the case.

That the Phœnicians were the dominant people in Ireland—anciently called Ierne, or Erin, which signifies the *western* land—and that the magi, or priests of the fire-worshippers of Persia, were the actual governing authorities, both lay and religious, as the Druids were in Britain, there is abundant proof. From the far East, indeed, Europe seems to have been supplied with its early superstitions, as well as with the fierce swarms of nomade and desperate barbarians, who, entering Europe on the north, at length found even the vast steppes and forests of Scandinavia too narrow for them, and whose furious assaults levelled cities and terminated the stern rule of ages, only, in the end, to found nations at once mightier in conquest, wiser in law-giving, and possessing, as it should seem, as great a superiority in permanency, as in extent, of empire. As the aborigines, if such existed when the Phœnicians colonized Ireland, had made way for a more civilized, wealthy, and luxurious people, so these in their turn were soon obliged to make way for or submit to a fiercer and more hardy people. The Scoti, one of those Scandinavian hordes, which under the various names of Northmen, Sea-kings, Danes, and Saxons, defied un-

navigated seas and natural barriers to prevent them from overrunning the fairest and richest portions of Europe (B. C. 200), sent forth from the north of Spain, where they had been colonized, a powerful and fierce horde led by Milesius. Hence these Scoti are more commonly called Milesians; the term Scoti being generally confined to another swarm of the same fierce race, which at a later date endeavoured to settle, also, in Ireland; but, unable to effect their purpose, departed northward, and founded the powerful Scots, who, now at war with the Picts and now in alliance with them against the comparatively civilized Britons, were so long noted for strength, courage, and perseverance, before they were famous for aught else; and who taught even the Roman legions to respect them as foes, ages before they had any of those arts of peace which the Roman eagles had heralded into many other lands.

That the vast immigrations which have changed the face of all Europe originated in the east of the world, and that the north of Europe, by whatever tribes nominally peopled, was, in fact, but the resting-place and nursery of such immigrants, very many circumstances go to prove; but perhaps none more strongly than the general resemblance in both the political and the religious rule of tribes nominally and directly coming from distant parts and settling in distant parts. Thus we find that the Phœnicians direct from the east of the Mediterranean strikingly resembled, in many points, both civil and religious, the Scoti or Milesians of the Spanish coast who certainly had settled there from the north of Europe, where, it is nearly as certain, they had originally halted on their march from the eastern quarter of the world; and these, again, in like manner resembled the Britons. Between the Magi of the Phœnician Irish, (those priests of the false faith of Zoroaster who were perfectly undisturbed in their rites, or rather who were continued in their power as priests, sages, seers, and statesmen by the fierce Milesians), and the Druids of Britain, there were so many and such striking resemblances, that the Milesians called their priests Magi and Druids indiscriminately. The dark grove and the unsparing sacrificial knife of the stern and unquestioned priest marked both offshoots or corruptions of the fire-worshippers; and the mysteries, cruelties, and sacrifices, from the first fruits of the earth to the first-born child of the idolator's family, of the Druids were, with but such difference as long journeys and distant residence will easily and fully account for, the mysteries, the cruelties, and the sacrifices of the Magi too.

The dreadful and fierce sacrifices of the Druids were put an end to in Britain by the Romans; but, strange to say, that mighty and enterprising people seem never to have visited Ireland, where the Magi exercised their terrible rule quite undisturbed during all the long lustres of the Roman sway in Britain. Yet, geographically speaking, Ireland was well known to the ancients. The Grecks called it Ierne, the Romans Hibernia; and it was also called the Holy or Sacred Isle, not, as has been with much defiance of chronology and common sense affirmed, on account of its owing its Christianity to one of the immediate disciples of the great founder of our faith, but to the precisely opposite reason that it was notorious as the residence of the Magi, and as the scene of their terrible rites long after those rites had disappeared elsewhere before the all-conquering and all-reforming Roman.

The Scoti, or Milesians, whether intermarrying with the Phœnician first colonies, or annihilating them, are the real ancestors of the Irish people; and yet we are asked to believe in wealth, learning, and civilization, among this horde of semi-savages; these contemporaries and coequals of the other Scandinavian and Scythian hordes who, probably during ages, had been wandering by slow degrees and in savage guise from the steppes of Tartary to the forests of Germany, and from the bleak north, with its ice-chained rivers and piercing blasts, to the luxuri-

ous coasts of Spain and Portugal, and the voluptuous plains and rivers of Italy! These were the real ancestors of the Irish people; these were the "ancient Milesians" and "Irish of the old time" in whose gold and gems, in whose piety, learning, and delicate breeding we are called upon to believe.

Had Ireland been so learned and civilized at this early day, we should surely not be even now ignorant whether the round towers were Phœnician temples or beacons for the Scoti, the Danes, and the other hostile settlers or piratical visitors of Ireland; and had Ireland been so rich at that day, the Romans would never have left her in contempt and in unvisited security, while ruling and reforming Britain for nearly four centuries.

We conclude this chapter, then, with stating and with begging particular attention to the statement—that the early history of Ireland is as fabulous in all that relates to glory, learning, wealth, and heroes, as any other early history whatever: that, in the case of Ireland this fabulous turn of early writers has been made the foundation of great injustice committed by later writers, and by orators and statesmen, too, as to England; that though, no doubt, English kings and their advisers in past days may have unwisely decreed or unjustly acted in Ireland, as in any other country, yet Ireland never began to be civilized, populous, learned, wealthy, or important, until connected with England; that English connexion has done much, and is still doing much, to make Ireland both prosperous and happy, and would do far more but for the fierce party spirit of some, and the equally fierce but still more disgraceful personal selfishness and ambition of others, which are constantly and throughout that torn land at work to perpetuate the grossest prejudices and the basest feelings.

CHAPTER II.

When the ancient kings and the ancient glories of Ireland are spoken of, inexperienced readers are apt to picture one king of Ireland swaying the whole territory from the Giant's Causeway to Cape Clear, and from Galway-bay to the Hill of Howth. This, however, was so far from being the case, that within that island there were five separate kingdoms, always jealous of each other, and frequently at open war. The five provinces or kingdoms of Ireland were Meath, Leinster, Munster, Connaught, and Ulster. The first named was considered the chief sovereignty; at the hill of Tara, famed alike in true history and bard's romance, which was situated in that kingdom, were the great assemblages of princes and chiefs; and the other four kings were nominally tributary to the king of Meath, just as the tanists, or the chiefs of septs, in their respective kingdoms were to them. The bards, an idle, imaginative set of men, were not merely the diverters of the chieftain's hours of recreation and wassail; the chieftain's bard was also his recorder, and we may cease to wonder at the exaggerations that have come down to us, when we consider that these marvels were originally said, sung, and written—if written at all—by men whose comfort depended upon the complacent feelings of him whose deeds they sang, and who, therefore, were under no very great temptation to observe a too rigid adherence to paltry realities.

In one of the piratical excursions made by the Irish, Mac Nial, a petty king, landed on the coast of Brittany, and brought spoil living as well as dead, human as well as brute. Among the captives was a youth of some sixteen years of age, who, on arriving in Ireland, was sold as a slave and employed in herding sheep. This youth was the afterwards celebrated St. Patrick. Naturally of a thoughtful turn, the mountain track and

forest glade in which his vocation caused him to spend much of his time deepened his meditative habits, and gave zeal and fervour to native religious impressions. He looked upon the land and saw that it was good; but he saw that it was peopled with idolaters and polluted by cruelties. Even amid the bitterness of his own situation, a slave and a captive in a foreign land, he felt that it would be a great and a Christian deed to open the eyes of the blinded among whom his lot was cast, and save their minds from the bondage of a false faith, and the lives of their first-born from being sacrificed in torture at the flaming altars of senseless and graven idols. Fortunately, Patrick had scarcely attained the age of manhood ere he escaped and got safely back to France, and for upwards of twenty years applied himself with diligence to learning, such as was then attainable. But neither lapse of years nor pride of cultivated intellect could banish from his mind the recollection of the state of the Irish, or his early determination to make the attempt, at least, to enlighten their minds and raise their social condition.

A. D. 432.—Accordingly, in the year 432, when about forty-five years of age, he applied to the pope for permission to preach the gospel in Ireland. Such a permission was willingly granted, and Patrick, accompanied by a few French monks whom he had interested by his descriptions of the character and condition of the Irish, landed in Ulster, after an absence of nearly or quite a quarter of a century. The foreign garb and striking appearance of Patrick and his companions filled the peasantry whom they first encountered with the notion that they were pirates, and preparations were made for driving them back to their vessels. But their quiet demeanour, and the earnest and simple assurances given by Patrick, in the language of the peasants, that he and his companions had arrived on an errand of peace and good-will, speedily converted hostility into admiration and confidence. The hospitality of the principal people was heartily bestowed upon the disinterested strangers, and Patrick and his companions presented themselves at Tara attended by a numerous and enthusiastic cortège. The mild and venerable aspect of the preachers gave full weight to the sublime and benevolent doctrines which they propounded. King and people listened at first with interest, and then with full credence; and in an incredibly short time idols and idol-worship became hateful to the people; Christian doctrines were everywhere received, and churches and monasteries arose where flames had but recently licked up the blood of shrieking and expiring human victims of ferocious error.

About the close of the eighth century the Northmen began to send as many as a hundred vessels laden with fierce warriors into the Boyne and Liffey. The monasteries, both as being the wealthiest places in the island, and as being the abode of the teachers of the faith of hated Charlemagne, whose prowess and whose sternness had made his name odious to the northern marauders, were the especial objects of their cupidity and vengeance. Built chiefly of wood, the monasteries when plundered were committed to the flames; and crowds of terrified monks and nuns escaped from the swords of the enemy only to perish of hunger, or the inclemency of the weather, amid the woods and morasses. From conducting expeditions farther and farther into the bosom of the island, the northmen at length proceeded to attempt a permanent settlement. And early in the ninth century (A. D. 815), they succeeded in planting a colony in the district of Armagh. Between this colony and the neighbouring Irish there were frequent and desperate struggles; but about thirty years after it was planted, Turgesius, a Norwegian of great fame and power among the northern pirates, brought a powerful fleet to its aid, carried death and dismay into all the accessible parts of the country, and assumed the title of king of Ireland (A. D. 845.) Having erected strong forts on well chosen parts of the coast, he wielded his usurped authority most sternly. The

native kings were made to consider themselves as his mere tributary tanists; and upon each he levied a tribute, in the nature of a poll-tax, upon their subjects, which, from the punishment of its non-payment being the amputation of the offender's nose, was called *nose-money*.

Turbulent towards their own titular kings of Meath, it might have been expected that the singularly haughty chiefs of Ireland would be stung to desperation by the sweeping tyranny of a foreign pirate. Many attempts at throwing off his yoke were unsuccessful; but at length the art and intrepidity of O'Malachlin, an Irish king, put an end both to the reign and life of the usurper. As though the whole power of the northmen had been centred in one man, this death was the signal of a general rising of the Irish. The lukewarm grew zealous, and the timid brave; everywhere the Irish sword gleamed for Ireland, and the massacre of the northmen was so extensive that the country might once more be said to be free from all enèmies; but this freedom was soon interrupted. In larger numbers than ever, with vengeance animating them, the hordes of the north poured in under three famous sea-kings, Sitric, Olaff, and Ivar. Waterford, Limerick, and Dublin were seized upon, and, as is generally observable, the energy of unprincipled conquerors gave a commercial and trading consequence to those cities such as they had never before possessed. Merchants from foreign countries repaired thither, with articles of both use and luxury; and an observable impulse was given to the civilization and refinement of the country, through the medium of the invaders to whom thousands of the inhabitants owed misery and death. In truth, the situation of the native Irish during this occupation by the Danes may be compared to that of the Britons under the early rule of the Saxons, so graphically depicted by Bede.

But neither the influence of the commercial spirit nor the foreign luxury introduced by the Danes, had the effect of subduing the Irish turbulence or courage. Even when, laying aside for a brief time their petty quarrels for local supremacy, they turned their arms against the northmen, their endeavours were more creditable than successful. But a king of Munster at length arose, to show the northmen that the power of an invader is precarious, and may be shaken long after the most timid of his followers have ceased to fear, and all save the best and bravest among the oppressed have ceased to hope.

A. D. 990.—Brian Borohme, whose talents and courage even romances scarcely rate too highly, was the king of Munster, contemporary with Malachi, king of Meath. The latter, though in title the chief kingdom, was at this time scarcely the superior of Munster, the kings of which occasionally asserted their equality by a refusal to pay the tribute. Though rivals, Malachi and Brian had one common feeling of hatred to the foreign rule of Ireland; and the former, a brave and able general, was in a mere military point of view more completely the liberator of their common country than the latter. Disputes having arisen between the king of Meath and the Danes, who had now rendered Dublin very populous and wealthy, a battle took place between them in the vicinity of the hill of Tara, in which the Danes were so completely routed that they were glad to accept Malachi's terms for peace. But Brian Borohme, conscious not only of warlike ability but also of capacity for civil rule, aimed at the sole sovereignty of Ireland; Malachi, equally ambitious, resisted his pretensions. A severe and passionate contest ensued, in which Malachi was subdued, and compelled, in that hall of Tara which for centuries had witnessed the supremacy of his ancestors, to do homage to the rival whom he had bravely though lucklessly resisted.

Brian Borohme's first acts showed that, however blameable the course by which he had obtained the chief regal place, his genius was admirably adapted to it. Without losing time in idle show and ceremony, he at once

set out on a tour of pacification, receiving the submission of the chiefs, and demanding hostages for the loyalty of those who had given cause for suspicion. Nor did he confine his cares to protecting himself; he also made laws preventing the people from being scourged by the cosherings of their rulers. His well known talents, and the sternness with which he imprisoned those chiefs who ventured to infringe his laws, had a salutary effect; and in his reign Ireland was a better ordered and more happy and peaceful country than it had ever before been. The strongholds and religious houses, which had suffered so much at first by the violence of the northmen, were repaired, and new ones founded. The Danes themselves, dreading to provoke him, busied themselves solely with trade, and did not for many years commit any violence.

A. D. 1014.—The king of Dublin suddenly and without provocation led his northmen into the kingdom of Meath, plundering without limit, and murdering without mercy. As if to show that Irishmen were never to see the misfortunes of their country without doing their part towards inflicting them, the king of Leinster joined his forces to those of the northmen. Malachi and Brian Borohme put themselves at the head of the other kings to oppose the host of foes that had thus suddenly sprung up. Rightly believing the native more guilty than foreign ones, Borohme dispatched a large force under his son Donough, to overrun the kingdom of Leinster. This service the old warrior judged his son could effect in three days, to which period he limited his absence. But treason was in the camp of the brave Borohme, whose gallant son was no sooner beyond recall, than some deserter made the northmen aware how much the Irish were weakened by this detachment, and they at once forced a general engagement.

Borohme formed his troops in battle array, and though four-score years had blanched his hair and abated his strength, he rode along the ranks and shouted his exhortations in the eloquence of which, in former times, he had so often witnessed the effect upon troops who had followed him to victory. Bearing a crucifix in his left hand, as he brandished his familiar sword in his right, he called upon them to follow where he should lead, and strike for the religion of the saints, with the firm hearts and vigourous arms of men who knew how to die as Christians, but never to submit to heathens in heart, name, or alliance. Shortly after day-break, on the 23d of April, the venerable king and warrior thus addressed his army, who responded to the address by commencing the fight, which lasted the whole day. As the shadows of night fell deeper, he was obliged to seek rest in his tent. At length the shouts of the Irish proclaimed that the foe was broken beyond hope, and the king's tent in the general joy, was left unguarded save by a stripling page. He was recognised by a flying party of the enemy a few minutes after, and in an instant his enemies were upon him; the loud shriek and feeble blow of the young page delayed the sacrifice not a moment; Brian Borohme, the terrible in battle, the wise in council, was slain, with many and ghastly wounds, even as he knelt in thanksgiving for the victory he had done so much towards obtaining for his country.

The defeat of the northmen was complete at Clontarf. The invaders fled to their ships and sought safety in flight; and the northmen who were naturalized in Ireland, despairing of any farther aid from beyond sea, had no recourse but to live in peace with their neighbours, with whom the intermarriages of a few generations so incorporated them, that all distinction was lost between the two people. Malachi, who had bravely distinguished himself on this occasion, was now by common consent called again to the chief sovereignty, which he enjoyed in peace and honour until his death.

A. D 1022.—Full of years and honours, Malachi expired in 1022; and the death of that monarch was the signal for the renewal of those shameful

civil wars, from which the strong mind of Brian Borohme had so long kept the country free. The renown of Malachi had caused all the kings to hail him as the successor of Brian Borohme, but the relatives of those two princes could not so easily agree as to the successor of the former. Many competitors appeared, and sanguinary struggles ensued; but at length the field was cleared of all but two. These were Donough, king of Munster, heir of Brian Borohme, and Turlough, great nephew of the latter and nephew of the former; both, it will be perceived, claiming in hereditary succession to him who had been to all intents an usurping king, however good and able. The struggle between these two princes was long; but Donough was vanquished, and almost immediately resigned his kingdom of Munster, and set out on a pilgrimage to Rome. Arrived at "the eternal city," he entered into a monastery, and there obscurely finished his life.

Turlough, on mounting the throne, proved that he inherited with it much of the ability and courage of his great uncle, together with a double portion of his resolved self-will. Much as he owed to the inferior kings and chiefs, he imposed upon them unusually heavy tributes; a tyranny the full weight of which was felt by the unfortunate kerne, or peasantry, from whom it was of course wrung by their tyrants. From the natives, Turlough turned his strong hand upon the northern settlers and traders. Even under the firm rule of Brian Borohme, these people were allowed to follow their peaceable pursuits, and their towns had been governed by their own laws, administered by governors of their own race. One of these, Godfred, king of Dublin, was banished almost immediately after the accession of Turlough, who filled the vacancy with Murkentach, his own son. A similar tyrannic course was followed to all the Danish towns. At this period Ireland seems to have obtained considerable improvement as to wealth, if not refinement. Mention is frequently made of gold in payment of tribute, where formerly it was paid in kine; and to its former exports of wheat, wool, hides, and cattle, we now find timber added.

A. D. 1086.—After an active and generally prosperous reign, Turlough died. His kingdom was partitioned among his three sons; the hereditary principle being set aside, but on this occasion with at least the colour of justice, inasmuch as the principle of equal division—though including the most distant male relatives—was that of the Brehon laws in the palmy days of the Magi. One of the sons dying, a contest arose between the two survivors, Murkentach—already mentioned as succeeding Godfred the northman in the government of Dublin—and Dermot. The latter was defeated and driven into exile, and Murkentach now claimed and was about to assume the whole kingdom. But a rival was set up against him in the person of a chieftain of the old blood-royal, named Donald MacLoughlin, who was extremely popular among the princes both on account of his personal qualities and his descent; and again the unhappy country was visited by a civil war. For eight years the old scenes of rapine and misery bade fair to undo all that invaders had done towards improving it; and after all this strife and misery, the rivals agreed to divide the regal spoil between them. The southern moiety of the kingdom was given to Murkentach, and bore the title of Leathmogh, or Mogh's share; and the northern moiety to MacLoughlin, and bore the title of Leath Cunnin, or Conn's share.

Even this seemingly equitable arrangement did not restore a lasting peace. Perpetual encroachments were made by one or the other, and a series of sanguinary and mischievous battles terminated in the utter defeat of Murkentach, who retired from the contest in 1103, and sought refuge in a monastery, where he terminated his days.

During the obstinate struggle between the Irish kings, the coastward

parts of the country were repeatedly annoyed by the Norwegian, Magnus. His prowess and audacity had possessed him of the Hebrides and the Isle of Man, and under the title of the Lord of the Isles he struck terror and dismay far and near. Emboldened by the senseless dissensions of the Irish, he sailed up the Liffey, ravaging and destroying, and at length possessed himself of Dublin, where, having fallen into an ambush, he lost his life.

CHAPTER III.

The various wars in Ireland did not prevent the island from being still divided into the five chief kingdoms of which mention has already been made. The titular chief royalty passed now to Roderic O'Connor, king of Connaught. But all his energies were required to enable him to govern Connaught, and he was incapable of either composing the differences of the other kings, or of uniting them all under his own authority. In a word, Ireland was in the 13th century as divided as ever it had been; and only so far improved in wealth as to tempt aggression by exciting cupidity. Heathen Rome and Christian Rome alike had allowed the semi-barbarous people of the "sacred island" to fight and destroy at their own good pleasure. But the time at length came when Christian Rome, already enthroned as the arbitress of the temporal and spiritual princes of the earth, looked with a longing eye upon the fertile island on which prosperity had begun to dawn. Ireland's near and ambitious neighbour, Henry II. of England, it was who immediately drew the attention of the pontiff to her value and capabilities. Attracted by the fertility of Ireland and its contiguity to his own kingdom, he applied to the papal court for its sanction to his subduing Ireland.

A. D. 1116.—Pope Adrian III., who then filled the papal chair, was doubly glad to receive this request. An Englishman by birth, he was naturally anxious for the aggrandizement of his native country; and, as pope, he could not but be rejoiced at having from the king of England this emphatic acknowledgement of the temporal as well as spiritual supremacy of Rome. The pope having shown that Ireland ought to be conquered, and that Henry is appointed conqueror, "exhorts him to invade Ireland, in order to extirpate the vice and wickedness of the natives, and oblige them to pay yearly, from every house, a penny to the see of Rome; gives him entire right and authority over the island, commands all the inhabitants to obey him as their sovereign, and invests him with the fullest power, 'all for the glory of God and the salvation of the souls of men.'"

The state of Ireland soon after this bull was issued, was precisely such as its foreign foeman might have desired it to be; one of the intestine brawls breaking out just then with even more than usual virulence and fury. Dermot Macmorrogh, the king of Leinster, who was remarkable for his gross immorality, had greatly provoked the chief men of his kingdom. Unaware or contemptuous of the general feeling that existed against him, he wantonly added to it by abducting the wife of Ororic, prince of Breffney, during her husband's absence. Prince Ororic, on his return to the bog island in which he had, as he imagined, secured the safety of his wife, was roused to the utmost rage by the information that Macmorrogh had made a descent upon it and forcibly carried her away. Morality at that time was so low, that nearly any man but the king of Leinster might have abducted his neighbour's wife, without running serious risk of incurring enmity or censure beyond that of the injured husband and his immediate friends and followers. But Macmorrogh's

character was so generally detested, that the prince of Brenney met with warm and unusual sympathy. Among those who hastened to assist him was Roderic, king of Connaught; and so powerful a force was speedily led to the punishment of the ravisher, that he was fairly driven from the territory he had so scandalously misgoverned.

Chastised but impenitent, the exile went to France, where Henry II. of England then was, and solicited his aid. Delighted at having an additional excuse for his meditated invasion, Henry affected to give full credence to the version of the story which it suited Macmorrogh's purpose to tell; especially as he offered, if restored to his kingdom, to hold it as vassal of the English crown. Just at that moment, however, Henry was too busily engaged in Guienne in quelling the rebellious spirit of his French subjects, to be able to go personally to the aid of his Irish supplicant. Nevertheless he cordially promised him puissant support, and furnished him with letters-patent by which all subjects of the king of England were empowered and encouraged to aid the exile king of Leinster in his attempts to recover his dominion. With this important document Dermot Macmorrogh hastened to Bristol to raise a force. For a time, however, he found even the king's letters-patent insufficient to induce men to volunteer for Ireland, where, according to the general notion, hard blows were likely to constitute the principal booty. It is likely Macmorrogh would have been still longer without reaping any benefit from the king's letters-patent, had he not fortunately met with a ruined noble of the house of Clare, who by a furious course of pleasure and extravagance, had so reduced himself, that he would gladly have shared in even a less promising adventure.

Richard, surnamed Strongbow, earl of Strigul, was easily induced to enter into the cause of the king of Leinster, on being promised his daughter Eva as a wife, with a present portion and the reversion of the father's dominion. Having secured this potent ally—for Strongbow was a good and approved soldier—Macmorrogh left his new ally and proceeded to Wales, where by liberal promises he produced two other allies, Maurice Fitzgerald, and Robert Fitzstephen, constable of Abertivi. Having thus secured abundant aid, he made arrangements for future proceedings with the three leaders, and then clandestinely re-entered his kingdom of Leinster, and secreted himself in the monastery of Fernes, of which—so little had the founding of monasteries at that time to do with religious feeling—this tyrant and ravisher was the founder.

It is probable that Dermot Macmorrogh had only his own revenge in view when he sought the protection and aid of the English king. Yet when he thus proposed to introduce foreign troops into Ireland, and, like Count Julian of Spain, who introduced the fierce Arabs into his country, called the foreigners to look at once upon the fertility and the feebleness of the land, it seems scarcely possible he could have been wholly without a presentiment of the natural result. Robert Fitzstephen, with thirty knights, sixty esquires, and three hundred archers, was the first of the friends of Dermot to make his appearance in Ireland. The archers, besides being completely armed, were for the most part men who had seen service, and their compact and orderly march struck terror wherever they appeared. Ten knights, thirty esquires, and sixty archers having, under the leadership of Maurice de Prendergast, joined this force, an attack was was made upon the town of Wexford, which had been greatly improved and was chiefly inhabited by a party of Danes. The town was carried, and here the adventurers awaited the arrival of Maurice Fitzgerald. He joined them soon after with ten knights, thirty esquires, and a hundred archers; and the whole force of the adventurers was now fully equal to the task of defeating any force that Ireland could draw to one point. Roderic, king of Connaught, who had taken so signal a part in expelling

the guilty and detested Macmorrogh, made a gallant resistance, but was beaten at all points; and Macmorrogh now, looking beyond the mere restoration of the authority from which he had so deservedly been driven, began to project the dethroning and exile or death of Roderick, and his own elevation to the dignity of chief king of Ireland.

While these things were being enacted, Strongbow had made his way to Normandy, where, as we have before said, Henry II. at that time was. Though a gallant knight, Strongbow too well knew the waywardness of his royal master, not to feel anxious for a more direct and personal permission to act; lest he should by chance run counter to the king's private wishes while acting under his openly-expressed authority. Henry confirmed in person the permission given in the letters-patent, but did so with a coldness and ambiguity which showed him by no means over pleased with the success of the king of Leinster. Having first dispatched Raymond, with seventy archers, who made good their landing in spite of three thousand Irish by whom they were furiously attacked near Waterford, Strongbow himself soon afterward landed with two hundred horse and a body of archers. Having secured Waterford, Strongbow led the English force to Dublin, which place they carried by assault. Roderick, king of Connaught, enraged at the prowess of the English, put to death a natural son of Macmorrogh's, who was one of the seven hostages held by him. Both at Waterford and Dublin, the triumph of the English and their treacherous ally was also marked by circumstances of awful barbarity. Hasculf, the Danish governor, with his wife and children, were fortunate enough to escape from the sack of Dublin; but the slaughter among the common people was frightful. Strongbow now received, as had been stipulated, the hand of Eva, the natural daughter of Macmorrogh; and this latter personage dying shortly afterwards, Strongbow became possessed of the kingdom of Leinster, and prepared to extend his possession to the whole of Ireland.

Roderick, instead of hastening to the relief of Dublin, employed that critical time to arrest the progress of the English in a desultory expedition into Meath. He now became sensible of the error, and being joined by other Irish princes, advanced with thirty thousand men—an immense army for Ireland at that time—to besiege Dublin. But Strongbow was not a man to be pent within the walls of a beleaguered city. At the head of ninety knights, with a proportionate number of men-at-arms, he sallied out and inflicted such a sanguinary defeat upon this large but undisciplined host, as to impress all Ireland with an opinion that the English were absolutely irresistible. Just at this juncture the brave Fitzstephen, who had been closely hemmed in at Carrick, sent to entreat aid of Strongbow. The latter hastened at once to the support of his friend: but before he could arrive Fitzstephen had allowed himself to be tricked out of his liberty. A messenger sent by the people of Waterford, to whom he was especially obnoxious, informed him that Roderick had taken Dublin; that Strongbow, Fitzgerald, and other knights of name had perished, and that Roderick was now marching towards him with the avowed determination to spare neither sex nor age of the English. Fitzstephen, confident that a barbarous country like Ireland would be easily subdued, had brought over his wife and children with him, and was now, on their account, struck so with terror, that he readily gave credence to the intelligence. The messenger perceiving the impression his false tidings made upon Fitzstephen, persuaded him to allow him to guide him to a shelter, together with his family and immediate followers. In an evil hour his anxiety for the safety of his wife and children caused him to abandon the strong fort in which he could, at the worst, have held out for some time, and place himself and family in the hands of his bitterest enemies. He discovered his error almost as soon as he had committed it. Many of his most

valued followers were put to death on the instant, while he and the rest were committed to prison and closely guarded. But how greatly was his chagrin increased when he heard of the splendid success of Strongbow at Dublin; and that he was hastening to Carrick for the express purpose of affording that aid which Fitzstephen's own precipitancy had now rendered useless. The people at Waterford, well knowing what fate they might expect should they fall into the hands of the terrible Strongbow, gathered up every portable part of their property, set fire to the town, and then, carrying their prisoners with them, took shelter in a little island near Waterford harbour. Thither Strongbow pursued them, with threats of taking the most signal and terrible vengeance; but just as he was about to attack the island, he was induced to depart by solemn assurances that the landing of his first man should be the signal for striking off the head of every English prisoner.

Henry II., as soon as the state of affairs would admit of his doing so, was on his way to Ireland at the head of a numerous force. Strongbow hastened to England and met the king in Gloucester, where he had assembled a very powerful force. Henry at first refused to admit Strongbow to his presence; but on the earl urging that he could clearly show that, in all he had done, he had acted solely for the king's service, and that he would not even stir a step in the Irish expedition until he had received a particular permission from the king, he was admitted. And he boldly affirmed, on being admitted to the royal presence, that he aimed at Irish conquest only for the king's service, and that for himself, he should be content with whatever reward his royal master might deign to bestow upon him. Pacified dy a submission so complete, and seemingly so disinterested, the king accepted the surrender of Dublin and all other ports and fortresses conquered or to be conquered in Ireland; and granted to the earl and his heirs for ever, all his other Irish acquisitions to be held as fiefs of the English crown.

A. D. 1171.—The conciliatory policy of the shrewd earl having thus averted the storm of royal wrath in which he and his fortunes would otherwise have probably suffered shipwreck, Henry hastened his preparations, and, accompanied by Strongbow, landed at Waterford about the middle of October. The large force by which the king was accompanied, and the gallant appearance of the knights, armed *cap-a-pie*, procured him a degree of respect from the natives which they probably would have withheld from the name of king, which was too common among them to have much of that prestige which attached to it elsewhere. No opposition was made to his landing, and as he progressed through the country, kings and chiefs flocked to him to tender their homage. To each who thus came to surrender his possessions and authority, Henry instantly restored both on the easy condition of homage being done and vassalage confessed. Even Roderick O'Connor, the original opponent of Dermot, peaceably submitted, and without a single battle Henry II. of England became also king of Ireland. Having held a council at Cashel, in which special provisions were made for the support and protection of the clergy, upon whose exertions the king well knew that the peaceable maintenance of his authority would depend, and in which a variety of other laws for the regulation of marriage, wills, and succession of property were propounded, the king proceeded to celebrate the feast of Christmas at Dublin. The city possessed no apartment large enough to serve for the royal banqueting room on this occasion, but a temporary pavilion was erected, in which Henry feasted O'Connor and the other principal Irish princes in a style of profuse and costly hospitality such as they had never before witnessed.

The king appointed a lord-high-constable, an earl-marshal, and a high steward; and distributed vast tracts of Irish territory among English nobles, but on the strictest feudal principle. Thus, for instance, by way of

preventing the great possessions of Strongbow from being predominant in Ireland, the king gave the whole of Meath, so long the seat of the chief Irish royalty, to Hugh de Lacy and his heirs forever, on the tenure of fifty knights' service. Having thus provided for the future government and security of Ireland as an integral part of his dominion, and made such minor arrangements as chanced to occur to his mind or to the minds of his advisers, Henry departed from the scene of his easy conquest—if conquest, indeed, that could be called in which he never had occasion to strike a blow—in April, 1172, having been in Ireland barely six months; and on landing in Wales, proceeded immediately to St. David's church to return thanks for a success of which he seems to have felt all the importance.

CHAPTER IV.

A. D. 1172.—The profuseness with which Henry had parcelled out Irish lands among English soldiers, and the jealous rigour with which each English pale or settlement repressed the slightest Irish disturbance, soon caused deep and fierce hatred. While the king and his formidable army remained, the Irish affected the most cordial feelings; nay, perhaps, while the king's presence acted as a check upon the haughty tyranny of the conquerors, the conquered actually did entertain the hope of being allowed to live in peace and good-fellowship. But the king had no sooner departed than the fiercest animosities began to display themselves. The natives, especially those who were in the immediate neighbourhood of the palatinates, and who therefore were especially subjected to the insolence and oppression of the English, looked with detestation upon these possessors of countless acres which they had forcibly wrested from the rightful inheritors. From murmurs they proceeded to actions; rebellions on the one hand and unsparing severity on the other, ensued; and again this luckless land seemed doomed to long centuries of petty but ruinous wars.

Strongbow was the principal man among the new comers, and was known to be the soul of their councils; so against him the animosity of the natives was especially directed. To render his situation still more perilous, his own followers, who, justly or not, had acquired so much through his daring and skill, began to show strong symptoms of insubordination. His appearance was hailed with less cordiality; his orders obeyed with less promptitude. A chief cause of this among the English soldiers was the strictness of Fitzmaurice, who had the immediate command. He was a good soldier, and being desirous that the natives and the English should, for the sake of both parties, live in peace and the mutual performance of good offices, he strictly forbade all plundering and brawling, to which the English showed themselves only too prone. This strictness, which the licentious soldiery considered all the more unreasonable, inasmuch as they were most irregularly paid, at length led to an openly-expressed determination of the soldiers to abandon Ireland altogether, unless the command were taken from Fitzmaurice, and given to Raymond le Gros, an officer who was altogether popular among them. Raymond le Gros, perceiving how important his support was to Strongbow, ventured to ask the hand of that nobleman's sister Basilia, a very beautiful woman, of whom Raymond had long been enamoured, but whom his comparatively humble fortune would probably never have allowed him to seek in marriage, but for the adventitious importance into which he was lifted by the mutinous spirit of the soildery. Strongbow was far too acute not to be aware of the delicacy and even peril of his situation; but he was pround as he was brave, and without hesitation refused Raymond both the hand of the lady and constableship of Leinster, which he also demanded.

Raymond immediately embarked, taking a considerable portion of the army with him. Their departure was the signal for an outbreak of the natives: while the English were so much weakened by the sudden loss of so large a body, that Strongbow found it necessary to dispatch a messenger to Le Gros, who had landed in Wales, promising that his double demand should be immediately complied with if he would return with the soldiers. He did so at a most critical moment; arriving just in time to save the garrison of Waterford, of whom the Irish had vowed not to spare a man. Le Gros received both his bride and his appointment, and then hurried to meet a vast force of Irish whom O'Connor was leading against Dublin. As usual, the superior discipline of the English overcame the tumultuous though brave Irish. Roderick sought safety in flight, and Raymond le Gros indulged his victorious followers in all the disorders of semi-barbarous warfare. Though defeated on this particular occasion, O'Connor was not subdued. Often routed, he as often gathered his wild followers to a head again, and his persevering and desultory attacks defied even the skill of the brilliant Le Gros. At length O'Connor entered into a new treaty, by which he engaged to hold his rightful dominions as the liege vassal of the king of England; and in consideration of his having the chief sovereignty of Ireland exclusive of the English pale, he undertook to secure the peaceable conduct of the other native princes; to whom Henry assured the peaceful enjoyment of their respective territories on condition of their regular payment of tribute, consisting of a hide for every ten head of cattle slaughtered. Roderick O'Connor, therefore, was king, in vassalage to England, of all Ireland except the English pale, which included Dublin, Waterford, Leinster, Meath, and the whole extent of country from Dungarvon to Waterford.

A. D. 1175.—Strongbow died in 1175, leaving his daughter Isabel de Clare heiress to his immense wealth, with the exception of certain lands with which he endowed the priory which, in compliance with the *quasi* devout spirit of the age, he had founded at Kilmainham. At the death of Strongbow a new governor, Fitz-Adelm, went to Ireland. In his train was a knight, of no great previous notoriety, named De Courcy, who, in pursuance of a singular fancy, lighted up the flames of war in a part of the country which amid all the recent bloodshed had remained at peace. Lying towards Scotland, and being inhabited chiefly by Scotsmen and shepherds, the province of Ulster might have long remained undisturbed, but that a headstrong English knight conceived the plan of fulfilling an Irish prophecy, at no matter what expense of blood, Scotch, English, or Irish. The prophecy ran that Ulster should be conquered by a knight from over sea, riding on a white horse and bearing birds on his shield. De Courcy had come from over sea; he speedily provided himself with a white horse, and though his shield bore not birds but bees, yet as the latter as well as the former have wings, he was decidedly of opinion that he was *tout-a-fait* the very knight alluded to in the prophecy! And to this mere whim of a foreigner, who in more sober times would have been laughed at as a coxcomb, or shut up as a dangerous lunatic, the unhappy people of Ulster were to see homes and lives sacrificed.

In despite of the express prohibition of the governor, Fitz-Adelm, De Courcy mustered a numerous band of followers, and with pennant flying, and trumpets sounding, galloped at day-break into the streets of Downpatrick, the capital of Ulster. The pope's legate, Cardinal Viviani, who was in that province, endeavoured to dissuade De Courcy from violence; but the cardinal's eloquence was powerless against the prophecy. The cardinal then becoming indignant at the senseless and unprincipled conduct of De Courcy, advised the king of Ulster, O'Neil, to oppose him in arms. In the first engagement O'Neil was defeated, but subsequently De Courcy, though generally successful in pitched battles, was frequently

reduced to great straits; and on one occasion he only escaped capture—which in his case would have been inevitable death—by flying before his enemies for two days and nights, without other sustenance than water and wild berries.

The petty and mischievous warfare which De Courcy had commenced in Ulster naturally led to similar disturbances in other parts. Fitz-Adelm, the governor, was detested; and Henry imagining that a more popular governor would perhaps succeed in restoring and preserving the peace of the country—a peace which was indispensable towards making the possession of the country a source of revenue to England—removed Fitz-Adelm, and gave his post to Hugh de Lacy, the lord of Meath, whom he instructed to take all possible means to conciliate the natives, but at the same time to exert himself in the erection of castles sufficiently strong and advantageously situated for the defence of the English pale. Nor did the king's efforts to secure the peace of Ireland stop even here. He applied to Rome for permission to crown his son Prince John as king of Ireland, though of course in vassalage to England. The court of Rome, which even only with reference to Peter-pence, and still more with reference to future contingencies, had a deep stake in the tranquillity and prosperity of Ireland, readily gave the permission required. But, whether from already perceiving something of John's real nature, or from some other unexplained feeling, the king did not avail himself of it, but merely sent him over as lord of Ireland, where the prince arrived in the year 1185.

Prince John was at this period about nineteen years of age. Arrogant, heartless, and destitute even of the prudence which would have taught him to imitate the affability of manner by which his father had contrived to conciliate the testy but warm-hearted chieftains, John by his first act disgusted those who approached him for the purpose of renewing their allegiance to the English crown. The flowing yellow garments and long hair and beards of the Irish presented a very odd appearance, no doubt; though, as the Irish were a singularly well and powerfully made race, one would imagine that the peculiarities of costume tended to make their appearance imposing rather than ludicrous. But when they were introduced to Prince John, who seems to have been surrounded by persons as young and ignorant as himself, they were received with peals of laughter, and some of the boy-courtiers are said to have gone so far as to pull the beards of these fiery and veteran warriors. The Irish nature was precisely such as it would be safer to injure than to insult. Burning with rage, the chieftains departed with the deepest determination to leave no effort untried towards shaking off the English yoke. They who had been the most sincerely desirous to show themselves faithful to the absent king of England, now joined those of their fellow-countrymen who were already in arms against him, and an insurrection of the most extensive description forthwith broke out. The English army, beaten at various points, was in a measure destroyed, and the Irish even made themselves a passage into the English pale, plundering and burning many of the houses and butchering the inhabitants. So extensive was this revolt, and so deadly the animosity felt towards John, that it is likely Ireland would have been wholly lost to England, had he longer continued in that island. Fortunately, genuine information, not always procurable by even the most powerful kings, reached the ears of Henry, and he instantly recalled his incapable son and gave the government to De Courcy, earl of Ulster. He, probably, combining both civil and military talents, and possessing enormous property and proportionate influence in Ulster, was the fittest man then in Ireland to overcome the difficulties and danger consequent upon Prince John's absurd conduct. Hugh de Lacy, who had formerly replaced Fitz-Adelm, would have been a still more efficient governor, but he had recently been murdered in cold blood, by an Irish labourer

while superintending the building of a castle in his lordship of Meath. De Courcy, well knowing the propensity of Irish princes to make war upon each other, so skilfully exerted himself to foment quarrels among them, that he easily broke up their league; and, at once separated from their common object, they weakened each other so far that he had but little difficulty in quelling their desultory attacks upon the English.

A. D. 1189.—Henry the Second, after a reign of thirty-five years, the latter portion of which had been tormented by the unnatural misconduct of his sons, died on the 6th of July, and was succeeded by the renowned king Richard the first. Attached to warfare, Richard was more anxious to humble France, or to lead an army against the far-distant hosts of Heathenesse, than to improve a conquest already made in his own neighborhood. He left Ireland wholly unnoticed; yet it was in his reign that the final annexation of Ireland to the English crown may in some sort be said to have taken place; as in the year 1198 O'Connor, the last native king of Ireland, expired in the monastery in which for thirteen years he had lived in peace. As he was the last Irish king, so was he the first of them who had the sagacity to perceive that the great source of Irish weakness and misery was ignorance. Though monasteries and their inhabitants existed in very evil abundance, the great mass of the people were in the most deplorable state of ignorance. Roderick O'Connor exerted himself to establish schools, especially in Armagh; and by that wise act deserved an admiration which, unfortunately, the world is more willing to bestow upon the king that leads in war, than upon him who points the road to civilization and happiness.

De Courcy, by nature restless and ambitious, availed himself of the neglect shown to Ireland by Richard, and made war and took spoil at his own pleasure; and when, in 1199, John succeeded to Richard, De Courcy had the boldness to refuse to acknowledge him as sovereign. As the matter really stood between John and his nephew, Arthur of Brittany, his claim was open to question. But powerful as De Courcy was in Ireland and against Irish chieftains, he soon discovered that he had overshot his mark in venturing to beard the king of England, even in the person of so contemptible a man as John was. De Courcy, in the life-time of Richard, had given offence to Prince John by the contempt with which he had treated all the prince's orders having relation to Ireland; and John, now that he had come to the throne, resolved to curb the proud vassal. De Courcy was accordingly arrested and sent to England. How or when he died is not known, but it is certain he never returned to his Irish possessions; and even his lordship of Ulster was taken from him and bestowed upon Hugh, the son of Hugh de Lacy, the murdered governor.

Though anything but warlike in disposition, John made an expedition to Ireland; less, it would seem, for the sake of putting an end to the disorders which existed there, than as an excuse for leaving England while the minds of his subjects were alarmed and irritated by the tremendous effects of the papal interdict. Attended by a powerful army, he was speedily waited upon at Dublin by twenty of the most powerful chieftains, who did homage and took the oath of allegiance. Anxious now to conciliate, as formerly he had been hasty to offend, he made many presents among them; and we may take it as a proof that these brave chieftains were even yet not far removed from barbarism, when we learn that of all the presents he made them, they were most delighted with a quantity of scarlet cloth. The reader is aware of the important law regulations which were made in England during the reign of John; all these were equally extended to Ireland, as were the provisions of that great political blessing—magna charta. But these benefits, though actually conferred upon all, were enjoyed only by the English in Ireland; the turbulence and

indomitable prejudices of the dwellers beyond the English pale, making them look with contempt upon all liberty and enjoyment procured otherwise than by force of arms. Where the barons from England subdued tracts of country and subjected the inhabitants to the feudal law, those inhabitants undoubtedly enjoyed the same imperfect liberty as Englishmen of the same rank; and nothing can be more grossly unjust than to represent as a consequence of English partiality, that difference between the people which really arose from the fierceness of the Irish themselves.

A. D. 1216.—John, whose attention to Ireland was but temporary, was now succeeded by Henry III. The reign of this prince extended to fifty-six years; and the weakness of his character unfitting him to contend with the bold and restless barons of his time, made the struggles of England more than enough to employ him; and Ireland was consequently left to be scourged by constant wars between the Irish people and their English rulers, the latter of whom still farther increased the confusion by fierce and frequent contests among themselves. How desperate the condition of the country had at length become, may be inferred from a petition of the Irish people to Edward I., in which they implored him to compel the barons to administer the laws equally whether to English or Irish vassals of his majesty, and to compel the extension of all English laws and customs to the whole Irish people. Utterly heedless, it would seem, of the fact that, as far as decree could avail, all this had been done in the reign of John, and that it was the people themselves who prevented practice from being assimilated to theory; yet sensible of the existing evils, though blind to their real causes, they offered to pay the sum of eight thousand marks to the king as the price of his rendering them this great service. He made an order accordingly; but the order of the great Edward was as ineffectual as that of the mean John, when opposed to the prejudices of a people at once brave, restless, and ignorant, living in a state of society provocative of injustice and tyranny.

The war in which Edward I. was engaged with Scotland compelled him to summon his barons from Ireland, and during their absence the natives made frequent and destructive attacks upon the English pale. The death of Edward enabled the celebrated Robert Bruce to seat himself firmly upon the throne of Scotland. Knowing how ardently the Irish desired to throw of the English yoke, and judging how important he could make them in diverting the attacks of the English from Scotland, King Robert Bruce in the ye[illegible] after his accession to the Scottish throne, (1315) sent his brother Edward into Ireland with a well equipped army of six thousand men. He was received with open arms as deliverer, and took upon himself the title of king. His brother soon afterwards landed in Ireland with a still more powerful army. But just at this time there was an absolute famine in both England and Ireland; and the latter country, suffering under the effects of long civil war as well as of the bad season, was still more terribly destitute than the former. The most splendid successes of war could avail nothing against famine. Reduced to feed upon the horses as they died of actual hunger, the soldiers of Bruce perished in awful numbers, and he at length returned to Scotland, leaving his brother to contest his usurped crown with the English or abandon it, as he might see fit. Edward Bruce, who was to the full as cruel as he was brave, bore up with a constant spirit against all difficulties. But though he had much success in the field, and made terrible examples of the vanquished, he found it impossible to drive the English from their strong holds. The Irish were for the most part very favourable to him; but if they hated the English much they hated each other still more, and, as usual, their mutual strife rendered it impossible that they could cordially co-operate even for a purpose which they all had strongly at heart.

A. D. 1318.—Under such circumstances, it is likely that Edward Bruce

would at length have seen that the conquest of Ireland was a project too vast for Scotland, even with the mighty Robert Bruce for her king. But ere he had made up his mind to abandon his usurped royalty and return to Scotland, he was encountered at Dundalk by the English army, under Lord Bermingham. Edward Bruce on this important day performed the part of a good general and a stout soldier; but all his efforts were in vain, and he fell upon the field of battle while making efforts to rally a portion of his routed and dispirited force. Conspicuous by his arms and ornaments, he was marked out by an English knight, Sir John Maupas. Holding Edward Bruce in especial detestation, and believing his death to be in every way deserved and desirable, he vowed himself, after the custom of the age, to destroying him. Accordingly, though Edward was zealously defended by his friends and attendants, Sir John succeeded in reaching him; and after the battle their dead bodies were found still grasping each other in the death-gripe.

CHAPTER V.

KNOWING what we do of the turbulence of the barons wherever the feudal law prevailed, we have no room to doubt that the English in Ireland made their vassals feel the weight of their feudal chains. Removed as they were from the check of the king's presence, and living in a country in which civil strife was not the mere exception but the general rule, it would have been strange indeed if those barons had been less tyrannous than the men of their order. But it is abundantly evident, after making allowance for the evils which Ireland, in common with other countries, must have owed to the abuses of the feudal system, the chief and abiding cause of misery was the inherent disorderliness of the Irish character. The clergy, for instance, both English and Irish, were at deadly feud. No English monk was allowed to enter an Irish monastery; and the monasteries of the English pale were hopelessly inaccessible to the native monk. When we see that even the common bond of spiritual and temporal interest could not induce the clergy to lay aside their animosities, we need not marvel that the best attempts at causing a general union of the people failed. Edward III., who did so much towards improving the laws and raising the trade of England, was desirous to render the same service to Ireland. Clearly perceiving that it was next to impossible to obtain the exact obedience of the barons whose lands lay in Ireland, and, at the same time, desirous to prevent the Irish people from being oppressed, he threw, as far as possible, the government of Ireland into the hands of nobles whose property lay in England, and for whose obedience and good conduct he consequently had some security. But this excellent stroke of policy was made too late to have the effect it would have had at an earlier date.

A. D. 1361.—Lionel, duke of Clarence, was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland in the year 1361; and he evidently went there with the desire to give effect to his royal father's wishes for the people's welfare. But the animosities which had been so many years increasing were now beyond the possibility of a speedy remedy. Such was the hostility between the two races, that under the governorship of Lionel, it was found requisite to pass the stringent regulations known to lawyers as the statute of Kilkenny. Hitherto attempts had been made to govern Ireland rather by affection than by severity; and the law left it quite open to the two races to become amalgamated by marriage and friendship. But by this statute, which seems to have been called for by the danger of the English from the Irish, the latter were at length treated formally as an inferior people. Marriage

with the Irish was forbidden; the nursing of English infants by Irish women was discountenanced; and severe punishments were allotted to the offences, on the part of men of English descent, of speaking the Irish language, using the Irish customs, or wearing the Irish dress. These enactments were doubtless severe; but it must be remembered that an opposite spirit had, for two hundred years, been tried in vain; and that between this stern severity and the actual abandonment of the island—the possession of which by France would have been so prejudicial to the English throne—the condition and temper of the Irish people left room for no middle course. However reasonable the demands of the English government, they never failed to provoke an armed resistance; the country was continually in a state of revolt, famine was frequent, and suffering constant.

Soon after the accession of Richard II. to the throne of England, that prince went to Ireland with a considerable force, naturally expecting that he should find the chiefs disinclined to yield him peaceable homage. Whether from some vague predilection in his favour, or from the fact of his being accompanied by a well-appointed force, he was even joyfully received. No fewer than seventy-four of the most powerful men hastened to make a surrender of their possessions, and to agree to receive them in grant from him on condition of maintaining his royal authority in Ireland. Delighted with a loyalty so exuberant, Richard proposed to honour with knighthood the four principal chiefs. But the Irish were not learned in the lore of chivalry, and an honour which would have been eagerly coveted by the high-born and wealthy elsewhere, was actually declined by these untutored men, who gravely assured him it was the custom of the Irish kings to confer knighthood on their sons as early as the age of seven years. And it was not until pains had been taken to explain to them the theory of knighthood, that they could be induced to pass the preparatory vigil and receive the honour with its formalities. Richard on this occasion made a considerable stay in Ireland, and he and his Irish subjects parted in apparent good feeling. But as soon as the king was absent the chiefs became turbulent as ever. The English pale was perpetually attacked, and so much territory recovered that it became reduced within dangerously narrow limits; and at length, Roger, earl of March, cousin and heir-presumptive of the king, was barbarously murdered. Richard was at this time greatly harrassed by the enmity of Henry Bolingbroke, the exiled duke of Lancaster. But though he well knew that noble meditated the invasion of England, Richard unhesitatingly led an army to Ireland to avenge the death of his cousin: (A. D. 1399.) As usual with them, the Irish chieftains endeavoured to avoid being brought to a general action, and retired among the bogs and mountains. But Richard was too intent upon avenging the murder of his cousin to listen to those who represented the difficulty of following the rebels into their retreats. Burning the towns and villages as he marched along, and disregarding the sufferings and complaints of his soldiers, who often floundered in the treacherous soil of the bogs, he followed so closely, that the greater part gladly submitted on condition of being received into the king's peace with full indemnity for the past. But Macmorrogh, a lineal descendant of that chief whose misconduct had first called the English into Ireland, held out and loudly protested that neither fear nor love should induce him to submit. The chivalry of England was not to be resisted by a chieftain so comparatively powerless; and Macmorrogh at length agreed to treat with the earl of Gloucester. But when the meeting took place, the fiery chieftain was so enraged at what he thought the insulting terms proposed, that he angrily broke up the conference and betook himself to his savage haunts, less inclined than ever to submission. Richard offered a large reward for the person of Macmorrogh, living or dead; but events had by

this time taken place in England, which compelled him to forego his desire to punish the haughty enemy; for the earl of Lancaster, who subsequently dethroned Richard, and succeeded him under the title of Henry IV., had landed in England, and been joined by some of the most powerful of the nobility, and an army of near sixty thousand men. Richard was consequently obliged to abandon whatever projects he had formed. Henry IV. could find no leisure to attend to the affairs of Ireland, though many petitions were sent to him; and during the whole of his reign the turbulence of the Irish chieftains, and the cupidity and despotism of the English authorities, made the country a scene of wild disorder and wretchedness; in which condition it remained from the close of the fourteenth century to the accession of Henry VII. of England. During this long period the whole history of Ireland may be written in two words, *strife* and *misery;* and to enter into any detail would be merely to weary the reader with a monotonous recital.

A. D. 1485.—As though Ireland had not already suffered sufficiently, the accession to the throne of England of one of its most solidly wise and peace-loving kings, Henry VII., was the signal for more disturbance. Hitherto the unhappy people had at least fought about their own affairs; but now they were involved in the cause of a silly impostor, the tool of a more knavish one. The history of the impudent attempt of the priest Simon to palm a youth of low degree named Lambert Simnel, upon the people as the earl of Warwick, nephew of Edward IV., and heir to the throne of England, we gave in detail under the history of that country. But it is necessary to speak of it here, inasmuch as that gross imposture became a cause of suffering to the Irish. Richard Simon, a priest living in Oxford, was instructor of the young impostor, Simnel; but considering the character of the dowager-queen, there is little reason to doubt that Simon was himself a tool in the hands of persons far higher in rank. Young Simnel was well furnished with information connected with the royal family; and his tutor, aware of its propensity to fighting for any or for no cause, judged Ireland to be the fittest scene for the first attempt; especially as the Irish were attached to the house of York, of which it was pretended the young impostor was a scion. The lord-deputy of Ireland, Thomas Fitzgerald, earl of Kildare, received the impostor's story without suspicion, the people followed the example of the court, and the impudent son of a baker was actually crowned—the crown being taken for that purpose from an image of the virgin—lodged in Dublin castle with all regal honours, and received throughout Ireland under the title of king Edward VI., without a word said, or a blow stricken in defence of king Henry. Henry VII., with the prudence which characterized his life, no sooner heard of the pretensions of Simnel, than he put all doubt out of the question, by causing the real earl of Warwick to be taken from his confinement in the Tower of London, and exhibited to the populace, at Paul's cross. Margaret of Burgundy, however, affecting to believe the absurd tale, got together two thousand German troops, under the command of an enterprising officer named Swartz, and sent them to Ireland. The arrival of such a force, sent, too, by a person of such influence as the duchess-dowager of Burgundy, raised the Irish enthusiasm to the highest pitch. Too poor to be able much longer to support the pretender and his followers, the Irish now became eager to be led to dethrone king Henry. That shrewd monarch had, however, wisely convinced his English subjects of Simnel's imposture, and thus prepared them to give him a hostile reception should he attempt to leave Ireland for England. Simnel, intoxicated with honours, was easily induced to believe that his cause was popular in England; and in full persuasion that he had only to show himself in order to secure support, he actually disembarked his Germans at Foudrey, in Lancashire. This was precisely what the king desired.

He marched against him, and the hostile forces met in Nottinghamshire, near Stoke, where a most sanguinary action was fought. The impostor was completely defeated, and he and his tutor taken prisoners. The Irish, who fought with even more than their accustomed bravery, suffered dreadfully. Ill provided with offensive weapons, they were altogether destitute of defensive armour; and consequently received the most ghastly and fatal wounds. Rushing, half naked, upon the cool and well-protected soldiery of England, they saw their ranks awfully thinned at every charge, and when the battle was over but few of them remained alive. With the capture of Simnel the king's anger ended. He immediately dispatched Sir Richard Edgecombe with a full pardon to all in Ireland who had abetted the impostor; to Thomas, earl of Kildare, he sent, with the letter containing his pardon, a splendid gold chain; and shortly afterwards the principal lords of Ireland were summoned to wait upon the king at Greenwich, ostensibly for the purpose of doing homage and taking oaths of allegiance. But the ever-politic king had a deeper design; that of making the Irish lords so ashamed of the impostor to whose designs they had so foolishly lent themselves, that they should be ever after little disposed to countenance similar adventurers. Accordingly, at a grand banquet to which they were invited, they had the surprise and mortification to find among the liveried menials who waited upon them, that identical Simnel whom a short time previous they had crowned as their king—crowned, too, with a diadem taken from the head of an image of the Virgin!

Henry VII., though he loved peace and preferred amassing money to the empty glories of the mere conqueror, was nevertheless very capable of exerting vigour upon occasion; and he now determined to make such alterations as would prevent Ireland from being so convenient a recruiting place for pretenders and their traitorous friends. It is a singular fact that Ireland was at this time an avowed sanctuary to evil-doers. He who had committed in England an offence by which he had forfeited life or liberty, had only to escape into Ireland, and no man could touch him. The right of sanctuary was first recognised by Richard, duke of York—father of Edward IV.—during his governorship of Ireland; but for its actual origin we must look to the numerous monastic houses there. Henry VII., perceiving the immense and pernicious advantages which the enemies of England derived from this Irish right of sanctuary, wisely determined to abolish it; and he entrusted this and some other reforms to a man of considerable talent and still more energy, Sir Edward Poynings, whose able and firm conduct caused his name to be given to the important regulation known to lawyers as "Poyning's law," which struck at the very root of Irish sedition, by taking away from the lords, parliament, and all other authorities in Ireland, the power of giving validity to any law until it should have been considered by the king of England. But, perhaps, the most important act performed by Sir Edward Poyning, was his arresting and sending prisoner to England the celebrated earl of Kildare. Henry VII. carried his peaceable policy too far now, and not merely pardoned him, but even reappointed him to the dangerously powerful office for which he had shown himself unfit.

A. D. 1497.—Warned by his narrow escape, the earl of Kildare seems henceforward to have conducted himself with considerable discretion. Perkin Warbeck, another impostor, aided by his French friends, having made an attempt upon England, was signally disappointed by the loyal men of Kent. They invited him to land, intending to seize him, but the pretender was too experienced a cheat to fall into the snare, and the result fully justified his caution. Those of his adherents who had landed were either slain or made prisoners; and Warbeck, unaware or neglectful of the alteration in the temper and opportunities of Ireland that had been wrought by Poyning's law, proceeded thither. But though on landing

at Cork he was well received by the mayor of that place, and also by the factious earl of Desmond, he speedily found it necessary to depart for Scotland, where he had a most credulous and fast friend in James IV., who protected and honoured him to the utmost, and even went so far as to give him the hand of his own relative, the lovely Catherine Gordon, daughter of the earl of Huntley, who, to the honour of Henry VII. be it said, was most kindly and hospitably treated after the fall and execution of her husband. The short stay of Warbeck in Ireland was, thanks to the good order established by Poyning, productive of no general injury; the mayor of Cork, who was subsequently executed for his treasonable concert with the pretender, being the chief sufferer.

A. D. 1535.—The young earl of Kildare had now for some time been in a sort of honourable imprisonment in England; Cardinal Wolsey, the able minister of Henry VIII., having very wisely objected to allowing that nobleman's use or abuse of his immense power in Ireland to depend upon his more or less lively recollection of the narrow escape his father had formerly had; and the cardinal had an additional reason to doubt the loyalty and faith of the young earl, from the fact of his being very closely allied with the notoriously seditious and powerful chieftains of the septs O'Carrol and O'Connor. During Kildare's enforced absence, he left all his interests and influence in the hands of his son, Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, who was then barely twenty-one years of age. It is not surprising that, under such circumstances, the lord Thomas Fitzgerald should fall into the snare that was laid for him by his father's enemies. They, in order to involve him with the English government, caused it to be reported to him that his father had been put to death, and that orders had been issued for his own arrest and that of other members of his family. Hot-headed, and, to say the truth, partly justified by the probabilities of the case, the young man assembled his armed followers and galloped to Dublin, where he scornfully threw down his father's state sword, and made a solemn renunciation, in both his own and his father's name, of all allegiance and respect to the English crown. It was to no purpose that the chancellor, one of the few real friends of the Fitzgerald family, implored the deceived young man not to commit himself too hastily and too far. The mere rhymed follies of an Irish bard were, with this hot-headed and most ill-advised young nobleman, sufficient to counterbalance all the wisdom of a grave and honest counsellor. He collected all the friends and stores he could command; and though the plague was then raging in Dublin, he proceeded to invest that city.

A. D. 1536.—Lord Leonard Grey, newly appointed to the government of Ireland, displayed considerable talent in the course of this strife; and after upwards of six months hard fighting he obliged Lord Thomas to surrender. He and five of his uncles, who had been as deeply concerned as himself, were sent to London as prisoners, and there executed. Henry VIII. was the more enraged by the extent and continuance of this rebellion, because it put a stop to the efforts he was making to carry into the religion of Ireland the same reformation he had brought about in England. As soon as the rebellion was suppressed, Henry renewed his endeavours to that end; and so evident an evil was the multitude of monastic houses in Ireland, that the archbishop of Dublin was the first person to fall in with the king's design. The suppression of the monasteries, and the formal declaration of Henry VIII. as king of Ireland, independent of the pope—instead of lord of Ireland holding under the pope, which was the light in which the Irish had hitherto looked upon the king of England—were followed up by some politic endeavours on the part of Henry to conciliate the regard of the Irish chieftains. O'Donnel, for instance, was created earl of Tyrconnel; O'Neill, earl of Tyrone; and his son, Lord Duncannon; though the latter, formidable as he could make himself in

wild Irish warfare, was so poor, that in order to be able to go to London to receive his new honour from the hands of the king, was actually obliged to borrow a hundred pounds of St. Leger, the English governor, and had so little prospect of returning even that sum in hard cash, that he stipulated to be allowed to repay it in cattle.

A. D. 1558.—The comparatively short reign of Mary in England, served to show that the facility with which the Irish had acquiesced in Henry's sweeping reform of religion was chiefly owing to self-interest and the skill of the king in accommodating his favour to the desires of the person to be conciliated. For a very general inclination was shown in Ireland during the reign of Mary, to return to the papal faith, and one of the earliest difficulties experienced by Elizabeth was that of re-establishing protestantism among her Irish subjects. The Desmonds and the O'Neills were especially troublesome in their resistance to England. The earl of Desmond broke out into an open war with the earl of Ormond, who, besides being a very able nobleman, was cousin to the queen. Desmond professing to be confident that he could show he was in the right, and was the injured party in the dispute between him and Ormond—a question of boundary of their adjoining possessions—petitioned to be allowed to represent the matter to the queen in person. He arrived in London, under the impression that he was to have the required interview; but instead of being so favoured he was thrown in the Tower, where he was kept a close prisoner for some years. When he at length got his liberty he naturally enough considered himself a deeply-injured man, and extended his enmity from the earl of Ormond to the English power altogether.

A. D. 1579.—Philip of Spain, hating Elizabeth, both as the protestant ruler of that kingdom which he would fain have subjected to the gloomy despotism of the inquisition, and because she had, most prudently, refused the offer he made of his hand almost ere her sister and his wife was laid in her tomb, gladly encouraged Desmond in his desire to work evil to the English power, and actually sent the rebel earl a very considerable force of Spaniards and Italians. But the wild Irish warfare, with its accompanying famine and other sufferings, was too much for the endurance of these troops, who had been accustomed to make war with considerably less bloodshed and more personal indulgence. Defeated wherever they appeared, and at length abandoned in despair by Desmond himself, they laid down their arms, and Sir Walter Raleigh and other English officers decided that they could not be looked upon so much in the light of prisoners of war, as in that of felonious abettors of a domestic rebellion; and, as a consequence of this decision, they were summarily executed. Desmond himself being found in a hut, was put to death by some soldiers for the sake of the reward they anticipated receiving for his head from his enemy the earl of Ormond. The large territories of Desmond, and the vast possessions of the numerous wealthy men who had abetted his rebellion were confiscated, either on the death of the owners in battle, or by their departure on the failure of the rebellion to the Low Countries, where service was offered to them by Philip. If the miseries of civil war fell exclusively upon those who excite it, the evil would be great and sad enough; but, unhappily, the worst share of wretchedness usually falls upon people who neither take part in the crime, nor have any power to prevent its commission. In the present case, the horrors of famine and disease raged to such an extent as almost to depopulate Munster. Raleigh and other Englishmen got grants of the land that was left untenanted; and to the accident of his obtaining a grant, Ireland owes the introduction of her great staple, potatoes, which he first brought into that country from Spanish America. He also introduced the cultivation of tobacco, but the climate prevented it from being good. But, by introducing the potato, Raleigh conferred a real and permanent benefit upon that country.

Hugh O'Neill, who had received much kindness from Queen Elizabeth, by whom he had been created earl of Tyrone, and to whom he was indebted for the restoration of a considerable part of the earldom, which had been forfeited by the treason of his uncle Shane O'Neill, was for some time one of the most loyal of the queen's nobles. It chanced, however, that when the great and providential tempest dispersed that armada which Philip of Spain and the pope had presumptuously named the "invincible," some of the vessels composing it were wrecked on the coast of Ireland. Tyrone behaved with so much cordiality to the shipwrecked Spaniards, as to give an opportunity to his cousin, a son of Shane O'Neill, to accuse him of treasonable correspondence with Spain. All the violence of the earl's nature now burst fiercely forth; instead of taking a safe and straight course, he caused his cousin to be seized and put to death; and having thus, by an inhuman crime put himself out of the queen's peace, he impudently set himself up as the *patriotic* enemy of her to whose favour he owed all that he possessed. Levying war in reality to save himself from the deserved penalty of murder, he also excited the M'Guires, M'Mahons, and other sects to join in his rebellion; and while the English agents were endeavouring to enrich the country, these patriots were doing their utmost to throw it deeper into barbarism.

A. D. 1594.—The experience of ages had not yet taught the Irish that peace is the true nursing-mother of prosperity and happiness. Tyrone and his associates, with abundant support, had committed much crime and inflicted proportionate misery. And yet, when in 1594 Sir William Russell went to Ireland as lord-deputy, Tyrone had the consummate assurance to go to Dublin and assert his desire to support her majesty's government. Sir Henry Bagnal, a shrewd man, who then filled the office of marshal of the army in Ireland, was for putting it out of the traitor's power to commit further crime by at once sending him to England. But Sir William, desirous of carrying conciliation to its most prudent length, determined to trust the earl's promise of faith and loyalty; and the earl showed his sense of this too-trusting conduct, by immediately going to his own territory and opening a correspondence with her majesty's bitterest enemy, the Spaniard, from whom he obtained a supply of arms and ammunition, and then openly placed himself at the head of a confederacy of Irish chiefs, their avowed object being the ruin of the English power in Ireland. Shrewd and well-advised as Elizabeth was beyond most English sovereigns, *magnum vectigal parsimonia est* was the ruling maxim of her life; to parsimony she owed not a little of that respect which the profusion of her successor caused to be withheld from him; to parsimony she was sincerely devoted. And, accordingly, to the six thousand pounds which was the ordinary revenue of Ireland, the queen added only twenty thousand, when emergency required the doubling or trebling of the ordinary English force of a thousand men.

While Sir John Norris was in command of the English force in Ireland, Tyrone availed himself of his knowledge of the limited extent to which the queen supplied her officers, to play upon that commander's feelings, to make and break treaties to such an extent, that the unfortunate gentleman actually died of a complaint which was attributed solely to his mental sufferings. He was succeeded by Sir Henry Bagnal, of whom mention has already been made. Being aware of the real disposition of Tyrone, this officer resolved to suppress him to the utmost; but an unfortunate circumstance caused the first of his operations to terminate in his death. The rebels at that time were besieging the fort of Blackwater, the garrison of which they had already reduced to great distress. Sir Henry led his troops to the relief of the fort, and was suddenly attacked on very disadvantageous ground; and one of the ammunition wagons accidentally blowing up, so increased the panic into which the men had been thrown,

that a complete rout took place. The loss on the English side was fully fifteen hundred, and unhappily included the gallant Sir Henry; and but for the daring conduct of Montacute, the commander of the cavalry, who held the enemy in check, the loss would have been much greater. The rebels were much elated by this victory, which was more decisive than they were accustomed to achieve; and it also put them in possession of a considerable supply of arms and ammunition, of both which they stood in great need. As for Tyrone, he assumed to himself the title of deliverer of the Irish people, and patron of Irish liberty. This event caused no little anxiety at the English court; and Elizabeth and her councillors at length came to the determination to give no future room to the rebels to avail themselves of truces and treaties. The queen, in truth, deemed it high time to put her Irish affairs in the hands of some commander possessing rank as well as ability. Her own opinion inclined towards Charles Blount, the young and high-spirited Lord Mountjoy. But Essex, who was now high in his sovereign's favour, was himself ambitious of acquiring fame by pacifying Ireland, and he urged that Mountjoy was not possessed of the requisite standing or the requisite talent; plainly giving the queen to understand that he was himself the fittest person she could send. Essex so perseveringly pushed his suit, that Elizabeth at length consented to entrust him with the coveted office; and in the patent by which she constituted him her lord-lieutenant of Ireland, she gave him the power of pardoning rebels, and of appointing all the principal officers in the lieutenantcy. As in distinction, so in military force he was favoured beyond any of his predecessors; having an army provided for him of twenty thousand infantry and two thousand cavalry. Averse as Elizabeth was to all expensive armaments, the more reflecting among the friends of Essex trembled for him; and the more reflecting among his enemies rejoiced in anticipation of the ruin in which failure would involve him, should he be otherwise than successful when so abundantly provided with the means of success. And, in order to render ill success the more ruinous to him, Raleigh, Cecil, and the earl of Nottingham, took every opportunity to impress upon the queen the impossibility of her favourite being otherwise than triumphant. The earl of Southampton had incurred the anger of Elizabeth by marrying without her permission—an offence which never failed deeply to incense her against those of her courtiers who committed it; and ere Essex left England the queen gave express orders not to give any command to Southampton. But one of the very first acts of Essex on his arrival in Ireland was to give his friend Southampton the command of the horse. This error, gross enough, was still farther aggravated. The queen no sooner heard of the disobedience than she sent her special command to Essex to revoke Southampton's commission; and Essex, instead of obeying, contented himself with remonstrating, nor did he obey until a new and more positive order convinced him that his own command would be taken from him if he longer hesitated. Considering the self-willed character of the sovereign whom he served, Essex placed himself in sufficient peril by this one error; but as if infatuated and determined upon ruin, he immediately committed an error still more grave, because striking directly against the success of the enterprize intrusted to him. At the English council-board he had pledged himself to proceed at once against the main body under Tyrone. The queen and her advisers perfectly agreed with him on this point; yet he had scarcely landed in Dublin when he allowed himself to be persuaded the season was too early, and that his better plan would be to devote some time to an expedition into Munster, where parties of the rebels were doing mischief. In fine, after proving himself signally unfit for his task, Essex in a pet returned to England, and eventually lost his head. Lord Mountjoy, whom Elizabeth, as we have said, originally intended for the Irish expedition,

was now sent over, in the hope that he would repair the evils caused by his incapable rival. The Irish rebels speedily discovered that they now had to deal with a lord-lieutenant very different from the vain and facile Essex. Brave and accomplished as a soldier, Mountjoy was also somewhat inclined to sternness and severity.

A. D. 1602.—On taking the command in Ireland, Mountjoy divided his force into detachments, and gave the commands to men of known ability and courage, with orders to act with the utmost vigour and to give no quarter. The rebels being thus attacked at once, and finding their new opponent was impracticable in negotiation as he was in war, threw down their arms. Many of them sought safety by retiring into the morasses and mountain caves, while their friends exerted themselves to obtain their peace on such terms as Mountjoy chose to dictate. Tyrone was no exception; at first, indeed, he tried to obtain favourable terms, but his days of successful deception were ended. Mountjoy refused to admit him to mercy on any other condition than that of absolute surrender of his life and fortunes to the queen's pleasure. But Elizabeth had expired while he still hesitated; and as the character of her successor rendered it unlikely he would show mercy to rebels so crafty and faithless as Tyrone, both he and O'Donnel made their escape to Italy; where Tyrone lived some years, supported only on a pension allowed him by the pope. He was blind for many years before his death; and the poverty and obscurity into which his misconduct brought him, compared with the influence and respect which he forfeited, ought to warn such men—if indeed men of ambition and ill-regulated energies can be warned by anything—of the danger as well as impropriety of inciting the ignorant and violent to that worst of crimes, rebellion.

CHAPTER VI.

A. D. 1612.—The most efficient of the English commanders was undoubtedly the lord Mountjoy; and perhaps, but for his stern chastisement of armed rebellion, Ireland would not have been in a state to profit by the wise and humane desire of Elizabeth's successor, James I., to civilize the people by raising them socially as well as intellectually. The immense tracts of land which civil war and rebellion had depopulated in Ireland, especially in Ulster, furnished the sagacious James with the first great element, room for civilized colonists, whose example of industry and prosperity could not fail to have the effect of raising all the rest in the social scale. Aware that a large sum of money was necessary for the carrying out of his admirable plan, and aware, too, that practical men were the best persons to look after the details upon which so much would depend, James incorporated the Royal Irish Society. The members were to be annually elected from the aldermen and common-council of London; and to the committee thus formed, were all matters to be intrusted connected with the management of the Irish fisheries, and the waste tracts of land. The lands were to be let to three classes of undertakers; so called because they undertook to fulfil certain conditions. Those who received two thousand acres were to build a castle, with a proportionate *bawn* or yard, surrounded by a substantial wall; those who received fifteen hundred acres were to build a stone house, also surrounded by a bawn, unless in situations where a bridge would be more desirable; and those who received a thousand acres were to build a good dwelling to their own taste. The plan itself was a comprehensive one; and we think that few will be disposed to differ from Sir John Davies, who says, as quoted by Hume, that "James in nine years made greater advances towards the

civilization of Ireland, than had been made in the four hundred and forty years which had elapsed since the conquest was first attempted." Having done so much, James declared all the people of Ireland to be equally his subjects, abolished the Brehon laws, and stationed a small army in Ireland, which was regularly paid from England, and thus spared all temptation to excite disturbances in the country by levying contributions upon its inhabitants. The good effect of this was strikingly shown in the case of an outbreak excited by a chief named O'Dogherty. This chieftain, among many, was enraged at seeing the comfort and prosperity in which strangers dwelt in his native country; and he was especially opposed to the abolition of the Brehon laws, which gave occasion to periodical warfare by a most absurd division of property, and made murder and other crimes as purchaseable as any manufactured luxury, by affixing a price to each crime, as the Normans and Saxons, and most other partially barbarous people, had done at an earlier day. Taking counsel with other chieftains as prejudiced and turbulent as himself, O'Dogherty endeavoured to plunge the country into a civil war. But his first outbreak was steadily met by the resident English troops; reinforcements were speedily sent; and he who but a few years before might have sacked towns, and then have sold his good behaviour for a peerage, was easily and speedily put down. Regular circuits for the administration of justice were formed; charters of incorporation were bestowed upon the larger and more prosperous towns; and James had the truly enviable pleasure of seeing prosperity and growing civilization accomplished by his peaceful and equitable rule, for a country which his predecessors had all failed even to begin to rule with either certainty or advantage. Hume gives a curious anecdote, illustrative of the effect which the affixing prices to crimes had, in diminishing not merely the *legal* fear of committing them, but also the moral sense of their enormity. When Sir William Fitzwilliams was lord-deputy, he told the powerful and unruly M'Guire that he, the deputy, was about to send the sheriff into Fermanagh. "Your sheriff shall be welcome," said M'Guire, "but let me know beforehand what a sheriff's head is rated at, that I may be prepared to levy the amount upon the county if my people chance to cut his head off."

A. D. 1641.—From the year 1603, Ireland had been constantly progressing, sometimes slowly, but always more or less, towards the comparative perfection of England; and if, now, in 1641, Brian Borohme, or Malachi of the golden collar, those sincere and—the age in which they lived being considered—sensible friends of their native country, could have seen the splendid alterations that had been wrought in its favour, they would have denounced to death the traitor, who, for the sake of his own interests, or ignorant fancies, should have proposed to light up the torch of war, and undo, in a few weeks of violence, what had been accomplished by the wisdom, patience, and liberality of years. But unhappily the times were favourable to mock patriots. The unfortunate Charles I. was now upon the English throne, and deeply involved in the fatal disputes with parliament, which ended so lamentably for both king and people. The settlers in Ireland under the scheme of King James were almost exclusively protestant, and they naturally had the utmost horror of the opposite faith, in the name of which so much cruel persecution had taken place, and constantly sympathized with the puritan party in the English house of commons. In their zealous attention to this one point, they quite overlooked the peculiarity of their own situation. Owing everything to royal authority, and protected in their liberties by the royal troops, the Irish protestants were probably the last of all the ill-fated Charles' subjects who, even with a view to selfish interests alone, should have done aught that could aid the triumphs of his enemies. Though a long lapse of years, and the steady and consistent wisdom of the successive adminis-

trations of Chichester, Grandison, Falkland, and the murdered Strafford, had fairly established Ireland among the prosperous and civilized nations; though septs after septs had become peaceful and settled tillers of the earth, or prosperous artizans and traders in the town, neither time nor ministerial wisdom had, as yet, abated the detestation in which the Irishman held the Englishman, in which the catholic held the protestant, in which, in a word, the conquered held the conqueror. There was still much of the old leaven of disturbance in existence; and at the moment when the protestants of Ireland were indulging their hostility to the throne, they were watched with a grim smile of approving hate by their Roman catholic enemies.

No matter whether the question were one of finance, of power, or of the form and etiquette so important to the efficacy of the ruler, yet without injury or danger to the ruled, the Irish protestants in parliament assembled took every opportunity to despoil and mortify their king in the most complete and egregious unconsciousness, as it would seem, that they were in precisely the same degree preparing and precipitating their own ruin. While the Irish protestants were thus departing from the line of policy and duty, the catholics and old Irish were longing for an opportunity to avail themselves of the fatal error; and there was nothing needed to plunge the now smiling and prosperous land into the horrors of civil war, but a daring, active leader. Unhappily such a man was at hand in the person of Roger Moore, a man of ability, and very popular among the "old Irish," of whom by descent he was one. Hating even the beneficence of the English, he took advantage of the blundering ingratitude of the Irish protestants, to excite the catholics and malcontents to insurrection. Artful and eloquent, he suited his complaints to every man's peculiar character, and pressed them alike upon the sympathy of all. To Sir Phelim O'Neill, and the lord M'Guire, he early and successfully addressed himself, and he and they used the most untiring industry to induce other leading men of the old blood and the old faith to join them. They pointed out the crippled condition of the royal authority in England, and of the vice-regal authority in Ireland; and they dwelt upon the inferiority of the English in numbers, and upon the ignorant and insolent confidence of safety in which they lived, even their small standing army being loosely subdivided throughout the land. Moore urged that the decay of the royal authority boded persecution and ruin to the catholics. He said, that though, as Irishmen, they were wronged by being subjected to English rule under any circumstances, yet the king had shown no disposition to persecute them especially on account of their religion, but if the puritans, as seemed certain, should succeed in subjecting their high-church sovereign in England, would they have any toleration to spare for his catholic subjects in Ireland? If any Irishman had a doubt upon that point, he had but to look at the persecution already endured by his fellow-religionists in England. As catholics, it was their bounden duty to prevent themselves from falling victims to the fierce and persecuting zeal of the puritans; as Irishmen they would at all times, and under any circumstances, have been warranted in throwing off the foreign yoke which conquest had fixed upon them; and they were now especially called upon to do so. O'Neill engaged to head an insurrection in the provinces, the signal for which was to be given simultaneously with an attack upon the castle of Dublin, which was to be headed by Roger Moore and M'Guire. Cardinal Richelieu, indirectly at least, promised arms and other aid; numerous Irish officers who were serving in the Spanish army promised to join them; and there could be no doubt but the catholic population would join in a revolt originating in zeal for the catholic religion. Every arrangement having been made, the day fixed upon for the outbreak was the 23d of October, 1641, that late period of the year being named by Moore on account of the

darkness of the nights, which would favour the dark deeds that were in contemplation, and on account of the difficulty that stormy season of the year would throw in the way of transporting men and arms from England, when news should reach that country. Great and prudent precaution as Moore and his fellow-conspirators had taken, their terrible design would in all probability have been frustrated, but for the unhappy difference between the king and his people. For whatever caution might be used in holding foreign correspondence, it was scarcely possible so vast a conspiracy could be known at foreign courts without some inkling of the matter getting to the ears of the spies, who, for gain or other motives, busy themselves in tattling to the attachés of the embassies. And though no definite news of the matter in agitation reached the king from his ambassadors, yet he was warned by them that there assuredly was some deep and dangerous thing planning in Ireland. Had the king been in concord with his people at home, and the Irish authorities zealous in his service, even these slight hints would have led to the discovery of the plot, and the prevention of one of the most extensive and terrible massacres that has ever occurred. But the lord-lieutenant, Earl Leicester, was detained in London; and Sir John Borlase and Sir William Parsons, who discharged his duties by commission, owed their promotion to the king's domestic enemies, the puritans, and therefore paid little attention to his warnings, and made no use of them. These reckless men had not so much as doubled the guards at Dublin castle, though its routine guard was at that time but fifty men, while it held out to the rebels the tempting booty of thirty pieces of artillery, and arms for ten thousand men, with ammunition in proportion. The 23d of October, as we have mentioned, was the day appointed; the 22d had already arrived; Moore and M'Guire were in Dublin, their signal watched by a host of disguised followers; yet not a doubt or fear disturbed the serenity of the castle, until, when the eleventh hour was past and the twelfth had well-nigh struck, Sir William Parsons was roused from his complacent indolence by the appearance of one O'Conolly, who, though an Irishman and a conspirator, was also a protestant, and shuddered when the hour approached which was to doom every man of his own faith throughout Ireland to death. The repentance and confession of O'Conolly were in time to save Dublin castle from capture; but, alas! it was now beyond human power to prevent massacre from stalking, unsparing and ghastly, throughout the rest of the land. Sir William Parsons and his colleague dispatched officers to apprehend Moore and M'Guire, and to warn the protestants, from street to street, to arm and prepare themselves for a death-struggle. Moore perceived that something had alarmed the castle, and he took his departure from the city before the officers could find him; M'Guire and Mahoney were less fortunate; they were seized and examined by the lords-justices, and Mahoney's confession conveyed to them the astounding intelligence that the fate from which the protestants of Dublin had so narrowly escaped, was but too certainly in store for their unhappy co-religionists throughout all the rest of the island. O'Neill and other leaders, not dreaming of any check to their design taking place in Dublin, where the authorities had seemed so blind and presumptuous, were true to their time and their ruthless purposes. Men, women, and children, were indiscriminately put to death; no former kindness, no present connection, was suffered to save the unhappy creatures who were known to be guilty of the inexpiable crimes of being English and of being protestants. Never in the world's history was massacre more unrelentingly carried on. Roger Moore, though enthusiastic in his hatred of the English, was grieved at the wide-spreading horrors of which his own exertions had been the cause, and retired to Flanders.

A short truce at length took place. The marquis of Ormond entered

into a correspondence with Phelim O'Neill, between whom and the rebel parliament at Kilkenny and the royal authorities at Dublin a peace was agreed upon. How long so bloodthirsty a person as O'Neill would have remained peaceable, it is difficult to guess. But the pope looked longingly upon the Peter-pence and the absolute authority of the green isle; and the instant he heard O'Neill had agreed to give the torn land and suffering people rest, he sent a confidential priest named Rinuccini as his nuncio. Whatever else the court of Rome understood, it was ignorant of political economy. For while that grasping power was ready to brave all laws and feelings in its ardour for conquering countries, it was to the full as anxious to impoverish as to conquer them; and while desirous of tribute, was bent upon multiplying those non-producing communities which could neither pay themselves nor exist but by diminishing that which but for them might have been wrung from the laity; and the monks, whether Jesuits or Franciscans, Carmelites or Dominicans, who were placed in the principal abbeys and monasteries that were restored, had it in charge from this zealous jesuit, that they should be instant in season and out of season in exhorting the laity to aid in restoring and beautifying all the monasteries throughout the island; of which it is clear that Rome felt confident of obtaining the complete dominion. The assistance which the rebels received enabled them to recommence and continue the civil war with advantage over the royal force, for the king was now in the power of the puritans; and much as those bigots hated the papists of Ireland, they loved their own aggrandizement still more; and while they obtained large sums from the gulled people of England, under the pretence of putting down the Irish rebels, they coolly applied those sums to the support of their own treasonable schemes, and left the luckless authorities at Dublin wholly unaided. Rinuccini, though his ostensible mission was only of a spiritual character, had more ample secret powers and instructions. At all events, he by no means confined himself to matters spiritual, but interfered with so much insolence in civil affairs, and showed so evident an intent to usurp all authority, that even the Irish rebels became disgusted, and he was at length driven out of the country.

After the murder of Charles I., that event added to the previously existing topics of strife in Ireland. The "king's party" included not a few of those who had rebelled against the authority of Charles I., and was from a variety of causes, so strong, that the marquis of Ormond, then at Paris with the queen and Charles II., complied with the invitation that was sent him to go over and take the chief command, in hope that his experience and popularity, being himself an Irishman, would make him so efficient a rallying point for the royalists, that Ireland might enable the young king at some future day to reconquer England. For a time, in truth, it seemed as if this really would be the case. Notwithstanding the cause of hate and strife which divided the Irish people into royalists and parliamentarians, Ormond was cordially received among them, and speedily found himself at the head of an army of nearly twenty thousand men. Colonel Jones, who was a creature of the parliament, and to whom Ormond had delivered the chief command in Ireland when he himself hastened to aid the unfortunate Charles I. in England, was compelled to bestow all his care upon Dublin, where the parliament left him unaided. Ormond therefore found but little difficulty in the earlier part of his attempt to reduce Ireland to subjection to Charles II. At Dundalk, Ormond no sooner summoned the place, than the garrison mutinied against their governor, Monk, and compelled him to surrender without firing a shot. Tredah and several other places were taken with comparatively small trouble and loss; and Ormond now proposed, after giving his troops necessary repose, to advance to the siege of Dublin. Could he have succeeded in that important point, it is very probable that Ireland would have wholly been lost to the parlia-

ment; for, considering the enthusiastic nature of the Irish people, it is highly probable the appearance of the young king in Dublin, whither he would have proceeded immediately on the success of Ormond, would have united the whole Irish people in defence of their king against the puritans, and their country against usurpers. But a change had come over the state of things. Cromwell was now more potent in England than the parliament whose tool he had seemed to be; and though England presented abundant labour and no little danger, Cromwell grudged Waller and Lambert the glory, which both aspired to, of conquering Ireland, in the character of its lord-lieutenant. With his usual art, he procured his own nomination; and, with his usual promptitude and energy, he no sooner received his appointment than he prepared to fulfil his task. He immediately sent over a strong reinforcement of both horse and foot to Colonel Jones, in Dublin. Never was reinforcement sent at a more critical moment. Ormond, and Inchiquin, who had joined him, had proceeded to repair a fort close to Dublin, and had carried forward their work very considerably towards completion. Colonel Jones, who was an energetic officer, had no sooner received this reinforcement than he sallied out suddenly upon the royalists, and put them completely to the rout. One thousand of them were killed; and twice that number, with all the ammunition and munitions of the royal army, graced the triumphal return of the colonel to Dublin. In the midst of the joy and exultation of the garrison and people of Dublin at this success, Cromwell himself, accompanied by Ireton, arrived upon the scene. Tredah, or Drogheda, a strong and well fortified town near Dublin, was garrisoned for the king by three thousand men, principally English, under the command of Sir Arthur Aston, an able and experienced officer. Thither Cromwell hastened, battered a breach in the wall, and led the way in person to an assault. Though the parliamentary soldiery of England, with Cromwell, and scarcely less terrible Ireton at their head, sword in hand, were not the men to be easily repelled, the garrison of Tredah showed that they were "English too;" for the assailants were twice beaten back with great carnage. A third assault was more successful, and partly in implacable rage at having been even temporarily held in check, and partly as the surest way to deter other places from venturing to resist his formidable power, Cromwell, to his disgrace, gave the fatal word "No quarters;" and so determined was he in this barbarous resolution, that even a wretched handful of men who escaped the carnage, were, on the fact becoming known to Cromwell, immediately put to the sword. The excuse that Cromwell made for this barbarity, so thoroughly disgraceful to the soldierly character, was his desire to avenge the shocking cruelties of the massacre. Professing so much religious feeling, even that motive would scarcely have palliated his cruelty; but the excuse was as ill-founded as the measure was ruffianly, for the garrison were not Irishmen, stained with the horrible guilt of the ever-execrable massacre, but, as Cromwell well knew, Englishmen, true alike to their monarch, their faith, and their country. Having thus barbarously destroyed the entire garrison of Tredah, with the exception of one solitary soldier, whose life was merely spared that he might carry through the country the tale of the prowess of the English general, Cromwell advanced upon Wexford. Here he had the same success, and showed the same murderous severity as at Tredah; and in less than a year from his landing in Ireland he was in possession of all its chief towns and fortresses, and had driven both English royalists and Irish rebels to such straits, that no fewer than forty thousand withdrew from the island altogether.

But Scotland now attracted the ambition of Cromwell; and having looked well to the garrisoning of the principal towns, and sent a vast number of the inhabitants, and especially young people, of both sexes, to the West Indies, as slaves, he left the goverment of Ireland to Ireton, upon

whom also devolved the finishing the subjection of the country. Ireton, who was a stout soldier, followed the parting instructions of Cromwell to the letter. With a well-supplied army of thirty thousand men, he ruled the country with an iron and unfaltering hand. Wherever the rebels appeared, there he was sure to meet them; and wherever he met, there he also defeated them. The faithless and black-hearted Phelim O'Neill, the author of the worst atrocities of the rebellion, was at length taken prisoner; and if ever the gibbet was rightfully employed in taking away human life, it was certainly so on this occasion. As far as his means permitted him, this man had rivalled Nero and all the worst miscreants of antiquity; Ireland, that unhappy country, was at least fortunate in being reconquered by even a Cromwell, instead of falling under the dictatorship of an O'Neill. The only place of any importance that had now not yielded to the English, was Limerick. Against this town Ireton led his men with his usual success. A fierce resistance was made, and when he at length took it by assault, he took a no less fierce revenge. But here it was ordained that both his success and cruelty should terminate. The crowded state of the place and the scarcity of provisions had generated one of those fevers so common in Ireland, which are as infectious as the plague of the East, and nearly as fatal. Ireton had scarcely stilled the tumult and excitement inseparable from the taking of a besieged town, when he was attacked by this fever; and as he was already much weakened by fatigues and exposure, it speedily proved fatal. After what we have said of his inflexible severity to his Irish prisoners, it may seem paradoxical to affirm that his death was a calamity to Ireland. And yet as such we really view it; he was led to his inflexibility by a horror of the cruelty of the rebels, and a belief that it was his duty to God and man to avenge it. But in his civil administration he was a just and calm governor; and as the country became orderly and obedient, so would he, we feel sure, have relaxed from his sternness and become the best resident ruler that Ireland ever possessed.

Ireton was succeeded in the lieutenancy by Ludlow. He drove the native Irish, almost without exception, into Connaught; and so completely was the Irish cause a lost one, that Clanricarde, who had succeeded O'Neill as its chief hope and champion, lost all heart and confidence, made peace with parliament, and was allowed to find a shelter in England, where he resided until his death. Under Ludlow and Henry Cromwell, Ireland gradually improved. On the restoration of Charles II., the duke of Ormond, who was condemned to death at the same time as O'Neill, but spared and allowed to retire to France, returned to Ireland as lord-lieutenant. Ormond, unlike soldiers in general, set a due value upon the peaceable arts, and he wisely considered that the best way to ensure peace and the obedience of a people, is to encourage commerce and manufactures among them. Accordingly, he exerted himself to promote the immigration of English and foreign artizans, and established linen and woolen factories in Clonmel, Carrick, and other towns. The duke continued to be lord-lieutenant of Ireland during the whole reign of Charles II.; and the improvement of the country was proportionate to his well-directed efforts to that end. On the accession of James II., that monarch, who was extremely anxious to fill all the offices of that country with catholics, as though he foresaw it would one day be the last spot upon which he could, with even a chance of success, attempt to defend his crown, removed the duke; but Ireland still continued to improve in wealth, morals, and comfort, until the abdication of James once more involved that ill-fated country in warfare. Aided by Louis XIV., James led a strong force to Ireland, where he landed at Kinsale, on the 17th of March, 1689. The earl of Tyrconnel, whom he had himself made lord-lieutenant, escorted him to Dublin, where he was received with every demonstration of loyalty and respect by the catholic clergy and people, the former meeting him at

some distance from the city in their full clerical attire. But his conduct while in the country was arbitrary and mischievous in the extreme.

James caused several pieces of brass artillery to be melted down and coined. The utmost value of each of these coins was sixpence, but the current value given to them by the preposterously dishonest order of James was five pounds! Not contented with subsisting his army, his suite, and his friends, upon this shameful difference between the nominal and intrinsic value of his currency, he went still farther, and did what we think would justify even sterner censure than we have pronounced upon him; for with this same base money, so base as to have scarcely any intrinsic value at all, *he purchased vast quantities of every description of goods and shipped them off to France.*

In the province of Ulster, where nearly the whole population were traders and protestants, and where much of the real property-tenure was affected by the act of settlement, the tyranny of James aroused a spirit of determined resistance. The king, obstinate and implacable in his resentments, looked upon the dislike of his subjects to such wholesale destruction of both their political liberty and private property, as nothing less than treason against his authority; and made war upon them as fiercely as though they had no more rights than the meanest of the mercenaries by whom he was accompanied. Derry, commanded by the famous protestant clergyman, George Walker, closed her gates against him; and to the steady bravery with which that city held out, as more particularly described in the history of England, it was mainly owing that he was so early driven from the island. Inniskillen resisted him with success; her army of 'prentice boys nobly making good their war-cry of "no surrender;" and at length, on the 30th of June, 1690, after a little more than fifteen months of tyranny, so senseless that one might almost suppose him to have laboured during the whole time under a judicial blindness, the famous battle of the Boyne drove him forever into that obscurity for which, as concerned the happiness of mankind, he was alone fitted.

The affairs of England now requiring William's presence, he gave up the command of the army to Ginckle, an able general. He defeated the Irish and French at Aughrim, and on the defeated troops taking refuge in Limerick, he at once laid siege to it. But the cause of the fugitive James was at so low an ebb, that even the most enthusiastic of the catholics had given up all anticipation of benefit from farther resistance; and as, from the stern character of Ginckle, it was not likely that he would keep any measure in his wrath, if compelled to take the place by assault, it was determined to treat for peace while it was likely he would listen to reasonable terms. A negotiation was commenced, and after some alteration in the terms had been dictated by Ginckle and acceded to by the garrison, peace was concluded, and the gates of Limerick thrown open on the 3d of October, 1691. When William III. was fairly settled upon his throne, Ireland as well as England began to exhibit manifest improvement in trade and commerce. That some distress should exist was inevitable; but no one can deny that Ireland improved wonderfully and rapidly, upon the whole, during the time that elapsed between the treaty of Limerick and the accession to the English throne of George III., that is to say, from the year 1691 to the year 1760. George III., in the first year of his reign, showed sincere anxiety to promote the prosperity and comfort of his Irish subjects. Public works of importance gave employment to those labourers, who, in the inevitable fluctuations of trade and speculation, were in want of it; new roads were made, piers built at some of the sea-ports, a splendid quay was built at Limerick, and that magnificent canal was planned which connects Dublin with the Shannon, carrying employment and prosperity throughout its course. In 1786, that perpetual source of ill blood, the tithe system, met with determined resistance from a large

party in the south of Ireland, who styled themselves *Right-boys*. They administered oaths, binding the people not to pay more tithe per acre than a certain sum they fixed—to permit no proctors—and not to allow the clergyman to take his tithes in kind. They also proceeded to fix the rents of land—to raise the wages of labour—and to oppose the collection of the tax called hearth-money. It was impossible that the legislature could allow this violation of the law to pass unnoticed, and in the following year an act was passed, to prevent tumultuous assemblies and illegal combinations.

A very few years passed from this time before the French revolution broke out; when all who were dissatisfied with the government, and hoped to profit by the convulsion into which the country was likely to be thrown, as well as those who sighed for catholic emancipation, or clamoured for redress of grievances, hailed the success of revolutionary principles in that country as the day-spring of liberty in their own; but while they professed to forward a "brotherhood of affection, a communion of rights, and a union of power among Irishmen of every religious persuasion," the leaders of this "association" contemplated nothing short of subversion of the monarchy in Ireland, and a perfect fraternization with the republicans of France, whom they invited to come to their assistance. That such was their intention, was afterwards fully proved on the trials of Napier Tandy and others; and it was also evident from the formation in Dublin of national guards, distinguished by a green uniform, and by buttons with a harp under a cap of liberty instead of a crown. The 9th of December, 1792, was appointed for the general muster of these guards; but the government interfered with their proceedings, and the muster never took place. But, although the progress of insurrection was stayed for a time, the spirit of disaffection only lay dormant till a more favourable opportunity should offer for displaying its activity. At length an arrangement was made between the ringleaders and the French government, that an armament should be sent in the winter of 1796-7, with whom the Irish insurgents would be ready to co-operate. Accordingly, the invading fleet anchored in Bantry Bay, on the 24th of December, 1796; but as the general and a great part of the troops were on board ships that had not arrived, the admiral, after waiting for him a few days, returned to Brest; having previously ascertained, however, that the country was in a better state of defence, and that the population was less disaffected to the English government, than the French directory had reason to suppose.

In May, 1797, a proclamation was issued, declaring the civil power inadequate to quell the insurrection, and ordering the military to act upon the responsibility of their own officers. Many severities were consequently practised; and the *United Irishmen*, perceiving that their only chance of success was by assuming the appearance of being reduced to obedience, they conducted their operations in a more secret manner, discontinuing their meetings, and putting on the semblance of loyalty with such consummate art that, the government being deceived by these appearances, the administration of justice was again, in about three months from the date of the proclamation, committed to the civil power. The organization of the United Irishmen, however, had been going on all this time in a manner the most secret and effectual. Secretaries, delegates, committees, and even an executive directory, was respectively engaged in furnishing supplies and arranging the materials necessary for carrying out their plans; and in the spring of 1797, the Irish union was extending far and wide throughout the island. Not being able to propagate their instruction by means of the public press, hand-bills were privately printed and circulated by their agents. In these, *abstinence from spirituous liquors was strongly recommended—for the two-fold reason of impairing the revenue, and of guarding against intoxication, lest the secrets of the society should be incautiously*

divulged to the agents of government. Those who thought they knew the character of the lower Irish would not have believed that any motive would induce them to follow this advice; but it was so generally and faithfully obeyed, that drunkenness among United Irishmen became a comparatively rare occurrence. The members were cautioned against purchasing the quit-rents of the crown, as the bargains would not be valid in case of a change in the government; and the taking of bank notes was also to be especially avoided. These things indicated an approaching revolution, and to effect it they looked with intense anxiety to France for military aid. This was readily promised them; and preparations for the invasion of Ireland were made at Brest and in the Texel; but Lord Duncan's victory off Camperdown rendered the latter abortive, while that at Brest met with unexpected delays.

By this time the number of men sworn into the conspiracy amounted nearly to half a million, and plans were made for the simultaneous rising of this body; their plans were, however, defeated by the vigilance of the ministry, and some of their most influential leaders arrested. In March, 1798, government issued a proclamation for the immediate suppression of the disaffection and disorders in Ireland; while General Abercrombie, at the head of the forces, marched into the most disturbed districts; not, however, till the insurrection had risen to an alarming height. Vigorous measures were now taken; and General Lake, who succeeded Abercrombie in the command of the army, proclaimed martial law, and eventually crushed the rebellion in the memorable conflict at Vinegar-hill.

But it is needless to proceed; for the scenes which followed, and the affairs of Ireland generally, are so bound up with those of England from this period, that the reader will find the material points already succinctly given. We shall therefore only introduce a few remarks relative to the repeal agitation, the poison so thoroughly instilled into the minds and hearts of the people in every part of the island. Insulting epithets, gibes, and falsehoods, have been used by O'Connell again and again, to bring the government of England into contempt; denunciations against the "Saxon," he has coupled with the meanest sycophancy to an ignorant rabble; he has boasted of his power to wage war against the British, while in the same breath he has affected to recommend peace. "If," said he, at a recent "monster" meeting, "it should be necessary for me to call this vast assemblage to arms—to bid you march to the battle-field, there is not one of you that would refuse the summons; ay, and your enemies know it as well as I do. Yes, I have set them at defiance, and I defy them again."

To write at all on Ireland, and not allude to the crisis which is so ostentatiously announced, would seem to be a dereliction of one's duty. But that we may not be subject to the charge of taking a one-sided view of Irish grievances, we shall make a few extracts from the observations of a popular writer, whose opinions on political matters are frequently carried to the verge of *liberalism*.

"The granting of the elective franchise to the catholics, so late as 1792, was the first great step in the progress to a better system, which was happily consummated by the repeal of the last remnant of the penal code in 1829. *The odious distinctions by which society was formerly divided have no longer any real or statutory foundations.* Adherence to the religion of their ancestors has ceased to entail upon the catholics a denial of their political franchises; and all classes now participate equally in the rights and privileges granted by the constitution.

"One of the most curious chapters in the Irish history is that connected with the embodying of the volunteers in 1782, and the revolution that was soon after effected in the construction of Ireland. The difficulties in which Great Britain was then involved having occasioned the withdrawal

of the greater number of the troops from Ireland, rumours were propagated of an expected invasion of the island by the French; and, to meet this contingency, the protestants of Ulster and other parts took up arms, and formed themselves into a body of volunteer corps. These bodies soon became sensible of their strength; and having appointed delegates and concerted measures, they proceeded to set about reforming the constitution. In this view they published declarations, to the effect that Ireland was a free and independent kingdom, and that no power on earth, except that of the king, lords, and commons of Ireland, could legally enact laws to bind Irishmen. These declarations, which struck a direct blow at the superiority hitherto claimed and asserted by the British parliament, might, and most probably would, at another time, have been successfully resisted. But Great Britain, being then engaged in a desperate contest with her revolted colonies, and with almost all the great European powers, prudently made the concession demanded by the Irish volunteers; and the *Independence of Ireland* was proclaimed amid the most enthusiastic demonstrations of popular rejoicing.

"In truth, however, this independence was apparent only. The wretched state of the elective franchise in Ireland was totally inconsistent with anything like real independence; and so venal was the Irish parliament, that any minister, how unpopular soever, had no difficulty in securing a majority in that assembly. Hence the anticipations in which the more sanguine Irish patriots had indulged were destined soon to experience a most mortifying disappointment; and this, and the hopes inspired by the French revolution, terminated in the rebellion of 1798, which was not suppressed without a repetition of the former scenes of devastation and bloodshed.

"The British government at length wisely determined to effect a legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland, and to suppress the separate legislature of the latter. This measure, notwithstanding a strenuous opposition, was happily carried, and took effect from the 1st of January 1801. And, unless it were resolved or wished to put an end to all political connection between the two countries, nothing could be more inexpedient and absurd than the existence of a separate independent legislature for Ireland. Perpetual jealousies could not have failed to arise between it and the legislature of Great Britain, which must necessarily in the end have led to estrangement, and probably separation. A legislative union was the only means of obviating these and other sources of mischief; its repeal would make Ireland a theatre for all sorts of projects and intrigues, and it would be sure to be followed, at no distant period, by the dismemberment of the empire. Its maintenance, therefore, should be regarded as a fundamental principle of policy; and, to give it permanence and stability, every effort should be made to remove all just grounds of complaint on the part of the Irish people, and to make the union one of national interest and affection, as well as of constitutional law."—*M'Culloch.*

THE HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

CHAPTER I.

"History," says Dr. Robertson, "which ought to record truth and teach wisdom, often sets out with retailing fiction and absurdities." Never was a sentence more true, nor a truism more necessary to be borne in mind. Relying upon uncertain legends, and the traditions of their bards, still more uncertain, the Scots reckon up a series of kings several ages before the birth of Christ; but the earliest accounts we can depend on, are obtained from Roman historians; and even these are very meagre. The Scots appear to have been descended from the Britons of the south, or from the Caledonians, both of Celtic origin, who being pressed forward by new colonies from Gaul, till they came to the western shores of Britain, there took shipping and passed over to Ireland, about a century before the Christian era. In their new abode, it is said they obtained the name of *Scuyts*, or *Wanderers*; from which the modern term Scots is supposed to be derived. About A. D. 320, they returned to Britain, or at least a large colony of them, under the conduct of Fergus, and settled on the coast of Caledonia, whence they had formerly emigrated, and in a few years after we find them associated with the Picts in their expedition against the Roman province of South Britain. The modern inhabitants of Scotland are divided into Highlanders and Lowlanders; but the general name of both is Scots; and if the etymology of that name be correct, we may say, without sarcasm or reproach, that they still merit it as much as their ancestors; for there is scarcely a place in the world where they are not to be found.

There has been much dispute among antiquaries whether, in the first place, the Picts and Caledonians were the same race; and whether, secondly, they were of Gothic origin; but, according to the best authorities, both these points have been very satisfactorily demonstrated. Tacitus describes the Caledonians as being of tall stature, light hair, and blue eyes, and he deduces their Gothic origin from their appearance; the Celts being, on the other hand, a small and dark people, with black eyes and hair.

In the year 81, the Romans, under Agricola, carried their arms into the northern parts of Britain, which they found possessed by the Caledonians, a fierce and warlike people; and having repulsed, rather than conquered them, they erected a strong wall, or line of forts, between the friths of Forth and Clyde, which served as the northern boundary of their empire. In 121, Adrian, on account of the difficulty of defending such a distant frontier, built a second wall much more southward, which extented from Newcastle to Carlisle. However, the country between the two walls was alternately under the dominion of the Romans and the Caledonians.

In the reign of Antoninus Pius, the pro-prætor, Lollius Urbius, drove the Scots far to the northward, and repaired the chain of forts built by Agricola, which lay between the Carron on the frith of Forth, and Dunglass on the Clyde. However, after the death of Antoninus, Commodus having recalled Calpurnius Agricola, an able commander, who kept the Scots in awe, a more dangerous war broke out than had ever been experienced by the Romans in that quarter. The Scots having passed the wall, put all the Romans they could meet with to the sword; but they were soon repulsed by Ulpius Marcellus, a general of consummate abilities, whom

Commodus sent into the island. In a short time the tyrant recalled this able commander. After his departure the Roman discipline suffered a total relaxation; the soldiery grew mutinous, and great disorder ensued; but these were all happily removed by the arrival of Clodius Albinus, who possessed great skill and experience in military affairs. His presence for some time restrained the Scots, but a civil war breaking out between him and Severus, Albinus crossed over to the continent with the greatest part of the Roman forces in Britain, and meeting his antagonist at Lyons, a dreadful battle ensued, in which Albinus was completely defeated.

The withdrawal of the Roman troops gave encouragement to the Scots to renew their insurrection, which they did with such success, that the emperor became apprehensive of losing the whole island, on which he determined to take the field against them in person. The army he collected on this occasion was far more numerous than any the Romans had ever sent into Britain, and it is asserted that in reconquering Scotland he lost no less than 50,000 men. On his return from the northern extremity of the island he built much stronger fortifications to secure the frontiers than had ever been done before, and which in some places coincided with Adrian's wall, but extended farther at each end. But, in the meantime, the Scots, provoked by the brutality of the emperor's son, Caracalla, whom he had left regent in his absence, again took up arms, on which Severus put himself at the head of his legions, with a determination, as he said, of extirpating the whole nation. But his death, which happened soon after, put a stop to the execution of a threat so direful, and we find that his son Caracalla ratified the peace with the Scots. At this period Scotland was governed by Donald I., who is said to have been its first Christian king. He died A. D. 216. From the reign of Donald I. to that of Eugene I., in 357, during which time eleven kings filled the throne, no important event occurs for which we have authentic history; though we are told that for the great aid afforded by one of the Scottish kings, named Fincormachus, to the Britons, in their contest with the Romans, Westmoreland and Cumberland were ceded to Scotland. In the reign of Eugene I. we read that the Roman and Pictish forces were united against the Scots. The Picts were commanded by their king, named Hargust, and the Romans by Maximus, who murdered Valentinian III., and afterwards assumed the imperial purple. The allies defeated Eugene in the county of Galloway; but Maximus being obliged to return southward on account of an insurrection, the Picts were in their turn defeated by the Scots. In the following year, however, Maximus again marched against the Scots, and not only gained a complete victory over them, but the king, with the greater part of his nobles, were among the slain. So well, indeed, did the conquerors improve their victory, that their antagonists were at last totally driven out of the country. Some of them took refuge in the Ebudæ islands, and some in Scandinavia, but most of them fled to Ireland, whence they made frequent descents upon Scotland.

The Picts were at first greatly pleased with the victory they had gained over their warlike antagonists; but being commanded to adopt the laws of the Romans, and to choose no king who was not sent from Rome, they began to repent of their having contributed to the expulsion of the Scots; and in the year 421, when Autulphus, king of the Goths, sent over a body of exiled Scots to Britain, under Fergus, a descendant of the kings of Scotland, the Picts immediately joined them against the common enemy. It was at this period that the Romans were obliged, by the inundation of northern barbarians who poured in upon them, to recall their legions and abandon their conquests in Britain. The native Britons, therefore, so long accustomed to the dominion of these mighty conquerors, and now so incorporated with them, severely felt the perils of their situation when left to defend themselves; hence originated that supplicating letter to

Rome, entitled "the groans of the Britons." This, however, not being attended with success, the Britons called in the Saxons to their aid. By these new allies the Scots were defeated in a great battle, and their king, Dongard, successor to Eugene, drowned in the Humber, A. D. 457, which put a stop for some time to these excursions. Hitherto we have seen the Scots very formidable enemies of the southern Britons; but when the Saxons usurped the kingdom, and subjected those whom they came to aid, the Scots joined in a strict alliance with the latter; nor does it appear that the league thus formed was afterwards broken.

Three centuries now pass without anything occurring calculated to interest the reader, or to throw light on the Scottish history, beyond what has been related in the history of England during the Heptarchy. In 787 we find that Achaius, king of the Scots, after quelling some insurrections, entered into a treaty of perpetual amity with Charles the Great, king of France and emperor of Germany, which treaty continued to be observed inviolably between the two nations, till the accession of James VI. to the throne of England. The next remarkable event in the history of Scotland is the war with the Picts. Dongal, king of the Scots, claimed a right to the Pictish throne, which being rejected by the latter, they had recourse to arms. At this time the dominions of the Scots comprehended the western islands, together with the counties of Argyle, Knapdale, Kyle, Kintyre, Lochaber, and a part of Breadalbane, while the Picts possessed the rest of Scotland, and a considerable part of Northumberland. The Scots, however, appear to have been superior in military skill; for Alpin, the successor of Dongal, having engaged the Pictish army near Forfar, defeated them, and killed their king, though not without suffering great loss himself. The Picts then chose Brudus, the son of their former king, to succeed him, but soon after deposed and put him to death. His brother Kenneth shared the same fate. Brudus, who next ascended the throne, was a brave and spirited prince; he first offered terms of peace to the Scots, which, however, Alpin rejected, and insisted on a total surrender of his crown. After vainly endeavoring to obtain the assistance of Edwin, king of Northumberland, Brudus marched resolutely against his enemies, and the two armies came to an engagement near Dundee. The superior skill of the Scots in military affairs was about to have decided the victory in their favour, when Brudus is said to have had recourse to stratagem to preserve his army from destruction. He caused all the attendants, female as well as male, to assemble and show themselves at a distance, as a powerful reinforcement coming to the Picts. This caused such a panic in the Scottish ranks, that all the efforts of their leader could not recover them; and they were accordingly defeated with great slaughter. Alpin himself was taken prisoner, and soon after beheaded.

Kenneth II., the son of Alpin, succeeded his father, and proved himself a brave and enterprising prince. Resolved to take a severe revenge for his father's death, he made the most vigorous preparations for war; and so well did he succeed, that, after many desperate conflicts, he became master of all Scotland, so that he is justly considered the true founder of the Scottish monarchy. He is also said to have been very successful against the Saxons, but of his exploits with those hardy and skilful warriors we have no accounts that can be depended on. Having reigned sixteen years in peace after his subjugation of the Picts, and composed a code of laws for the better regulation of his people, he died at Fort Teviot in Perthshire. Before his time the seat of the Scottish government had been in Argyleshire; but he removed it to Scone, by transferring thither the celebrated black stone supposed to be the palladium of Scotland, and which was afterwards removed by Edward I. to Westminster abbey.

In the reign of Donald, who succeeded his brother Kenneth, the Picts who had fled out of Scotland applied to the Saxons for assistance, promis-

ing to make Scotland tributary to the Saxon power after it should be conquered. This ended in a great victory on the part of the confederates, who became masters of all the country south of the Forth and Clyde; it being agreed that the Forth should from that time forward be called the "Scots sea;" and it was made a capital offence for any Scotchman to set his foot on English ground. They were to erect no forts near the English boundaries, to pay an annual tribute of a thousand pounds, and to give up sixty of the sons of their chief nobility as hostages. After the conclusion of this treaty, so humiliating to the Scots, the Picts, finding that their interests had been entirely neglected, fled to Norway, while those who remained in England met with a brutal death from their late allies. Donald, having been dethroned and imprisoned, put an end to his own life; he was succeeded by his nephew Constantine, the son of Kenneth M'Alpin, in whose reign Scotland was first invaded by the Danes, who proved such formidable enemies to the English. This invasion is said to have been occasioned by a body of exiled Picts who fled to Denmark, where they prevailed upon the king of that country to send his two brothers to recover the Pictish dominions from Constantine. These princes landed on the coast of Fife; and though one of the armies was defeated by Constantine near the water of Levan, the king was himself defeated by the other, taken prisoner, and beheaded at a place called the Devil's Cave, A. D. 874. This unfortunate action cost the Scots 10,000 men; but the Danes purchased their victory dearly, as they were obliged immediately afterwards to abandon their conquests and retire to their own country.

Constantine was succeeded by his brother Eth, surnamed the Swift-footed, from his agility. He was succeeded by Gregory, the son of Dougal, contemporary with Alfred of England, and both princes deservedly acquired the name of Great. The Danes at their departure had left the Picts in possession of Fife. Against them Gregory immediately marched, and quickly drove them into the north of England, where their confederates were already masters of Northumberland and York. In their way thither they threw a garrison into the town of Berwick; but this was presently reduced by Gregory, who put all the Danes to death, but spared the lives of the Picts. He afterwards marched against the Cumbrians, whom he easily overcame, and obliged to yield up all the lands they had formerly possessed belonging to the Scots, at the same time that he agreed to protect them against the power of the Danes. In a short time, however, Constantine, the king of the Cumbrians, violated the convention he had made, and invaded Annandale, but was defeated and killed by Gregory near Lochmaben. After this he entirely reduced the counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland, which, it is said, were ceded to him by Alfred the Great, whose affairs were at that period anything but prosperous. Gregory next engaged in a war with the Irish, to support Donach, an Irish prince, against two rebellious noblemen. The first engagement after his landing in Ireland proved fatal to Brian, one of these chieftains, and he then reduced Dundalk and Drogheda. On his way to Dublin he was opposed by a chieftain named Corneil, who shared the fate of his friend Brian. Gregory then assumed the guardianship of the young prince he came to assist, appointed a regency, and obliged them to swear that they would never admit into the country either a Dane or an Englishman without his consent. Having placed garrisons in the strongest fortresses, he returned to Scotland, where he died in the year 892.

Donald III., the son of Constantine, succeeded Gregory; but his reign was short; for, having marched against a body of marauders, who had invaded and ravaged the counties of Murray and Ross, and subdued them, he soon after died, A. D. 903. He was succeeded by Constantine III., the son of Eth, the most remarkable event in whose reign was, that he enter-

ed into alliance with the Danes against the English. This, however, lasted but two years. As soon as Constantine had concluded the treaty with the Danes, he appointed the presumptive heir to the Scottish crown, Malcolm, prince of the southern counties, on condition of his defending them against the attacks of the English. He had soon an opportunity of displaying his valour, but, neglecting the necessary caution, his army was signally defeated, and he himself severely wounded. In consequence of this disaster, Constantine was obliged to do homage to the English monarch, Edward the Elder, for the possessions he had to the southward of the Scottish boundary.

Early in the reign of Athelstan, the son of Edward, the northern Danes were encouraged by some conspiracies formed against that monarch, to throw off the yoke; and their success was such, that Athelstan thought proper to enter into a treaty with Sithric, the Danish chief, and to give him his daughter in marriage. Sithric, however, did not long survive the nuptials; and his son Guthred, endeavouring to throw off the English yoke, was defeated and obliged to fly into Scotland. This event caused a series of hostilities between the Scots and English, which in the year 938 ended in a general engagement. At this time the Scots, Irish, Cumbrians, and Danes, were leagued against the English. The Scots were commanded by their king, Constantine; the Irish by Anlaf, the brother of Guthred, the Danish prince; the Cumbrians by their own sovereign; and the Danes by Froda. The generals of Athelstan were Edmund, his brother, and Turketil, his favourite. After an obstinate engagement, the confederates were defeated with great slaughter; the consequence of which was, that the Scots were deprived of all their possessions to the southward of the Forth, and Constantine, quite dispirited with his misfortune, resigned the crown to Malcolm, and retired to the monastery of the Culdees at St. Andrew's, where he died in 943.

The reigns of Malcolm, Indulfus, Duffus, and Cullen, present nothing worthy of comment; but a remarkable revolution took place in the reign of Kenneth III., who succeeded Cullen, A. D. 970. This prince commenced his reign by relieving the lower classes from the exactions and oppressions of the nobility, which had become intolerable. Without stating his reasons, he ordered the barons to appear before him at Lanark, where he had provided an armed host to take such of them into custody as he knew to be notorious offenders, and on the charges being substantiated, they were compelled to make restitution, or were punished in proportion to the magnitude of their offences. In this reign the Danes, who had previously been making attempts to invade England, landed at Montrose, and laid waste the country around. Kenneth finding that they were making rapid progress in his kingdom, and were then besieging Perth, resolved to give them battle. He is said to have offered ten pounds in silver, or the value of it in land, for the head of every Dane which should be brought to him, and an immunity from all taxes to the soldiers who served in his army, provided they should be victorious; but, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the Scots, their enemies fought so desperately, that Kenneth's army must have been totally defeated, had not the fugitives been stopped by a yeoman of the name of Hay, and his retainers, who were only armed with rustic weapons. The fight was now renewed with such violence on the part of the Scots, that the Danes were wholly defeated; and after the battle the king rewarded Hay with the barony of Errol, in the carse of Gowrie, ennobled his family, and gave them an armorial bearing alluding to the rustic weapons with which they had achieved this illustrious exploit. Kenneth, at length, in 994, met his death by murder, at the instigation of a lady named Fenella, whose son he had caused to be put to death. The throne was then seized by an usurper, named Constantine, who, being killed in battle after a reign of a

year and a half, was succeeded by Grime, the grandson of King Duffus; and he again was defeated and killed by Malcolm, the son of Kenneth, the lawful heir of the Scottish throne.

Malcolm formed a strict alliance with the king of England; and proved so successful against the Danes in that country, that Sweyn, their king, resolved to direct his whole force against him by an invasion of Scotland. In conjunction with Duncan, prince of Cumberland, who on this occasion entered into an alliance with Sweyn, Malcolm sustained a terrible defeat, and was himself desperately wounded. So elated were the Danes by this victory, that they sent for their wives and children, intending to make Scotland their future home. Towns and fortresses fell into their hands, and the Scots were everywhere treated as a conquered people; but they afterwards met with a severe check, which they endeavoured to remedy by sending for reinforcements from both England and Norway. Their fleets soon appeared off the coast, and they effected a landing at Redhead, in the county of Angus. The castle of Brechin was first besieged; but meeting with a stout resistance there, they laid the town and church in ashes. Malcolm, in the meantime, was at hand with his army, and encamped at a place called Barr, in the neighbourhood of which both parties prepared to decide the fate of Scotland. The action was fierce and bloody, but was eventually crowned with complete success to the Scots. Sweyn was not, however, so discouraged, but that he sent his son Canute, afterwards king of England, and one of the greatest warriors of that age, into Scotland, with an army more powerful than any that had yet appeared; and though the Danes were, upon the whole, successful in the great battle which followed, they were so much reduced that they willingly concluded a peace on the following terms, viz: that the Danes should immediately leave Scotland; that as long as Malcolm and Sweyn lived, neither of them should wage war with the other, or help each other's enemies, and that the field in which the battle was fought should be set apart and consecrated for the burial of the dead. But glorious as the warlike exploits of Malcolm had been, he is said to have stained the latter part of his reign with avarice and oppression; and at the age of eighty, after having reigned thirty years, he fell by the hand of an assassin. Duncan I., a grandson of Malcolm, succeeded him in 1034; he had also another grandson, the celebrated Macbeth, who in the early part of Duncan's reign signalized himself in quelling a formidable insurrection, but who subsequently, after having done much in expelling the Danish marauders, murdered the king, and usurped his throne, to the exclusion of Malcolm, the rightful son and heir of Duncan.

For some time Macbeth governed with moderation, but his tyrannical nature was afterwards shown in almost every act. He caused Banquo, the most powerful thane in Scotland, to be treacherously murdered, and intended that his son Fleance should share the same fate, had he not made his escape to Wales. Next to Banquo the most powerful of his subjects was Macduff, the thane of Fife; for which reason Macbeth plotted his destruction; but on Macduff seeking refuge in England, the tyrant cruelly put to death his wife and infant children, and sequestered his estate. The injured Macduff vowed revenge, and encouraged Malcolm to attempt to dethrone the traitorous usurper. With their united forces they gave Macbeth battle; and, being defeated, he retreated to the most inaccessible places in the Highlands, where for two years he continued to defend himself against all who dared to oppose him. In the meantime, however, Malcolm, was acknowledged king of Scotland, and Macbeth perished in a conflict with Macduff.

A. D. 1057.—Malcolm III. being now established on the throne, commenced his reign by rewarding Macduff for his great services, and conferred upon his family some distinguished honours. The conquest of

England by William of Normandy involved Malcolm, who espoused the cause of the Saxons, in many fierce wars. Edgar Atheling, the heir of the Saxon line, and many of the Saxon nobles, found an asylum in Scotland. Malcolm married Margaret, the sister of the fugitive prince, who is said to have introduced a degree of refinement into her court remarkable for that time, and to have contributed to soften the rude manners of the people. Malcolm twice invaded England with success; but William, having collected a great army, in his turn invaded Scotland, and compelled Malcolm to do homage for the lands which he held within what was accounted the English territory. This was, as the reader has been elsewhere informed, an ancient feudal practice, common at the period; though in later times it has been asserted that the Scottish monarchs held their whole kingdom on this tenure. On the death of William the Conqueror, Malcolm again espoused the cause of Edgar Atheling, who had been induced to seek his assistance a second time, when William II., surnamed Rufus, ascended the English throne. After several negotiations between Malcolm, Rufus, and Edgar, it was agreed that the king of England should restore to Malcolm all his southern possessions, for which he should pay the same homage he had been accustomed to do to the Conqueror; that he should restore to Malcolm twelve disputed manors, and give him likewise thirteen marks of gold yearly, besides restoring Edgar to all his English estates. William, however, afterwards refused to fulfil his engagements, and applied himself to the fortification of his northern boundaries, especially Carlisle, which had been destroyed by the Danes 200 years before. This place lay within the feudal dominions of Malcolm, and he complained of William's proceedings, as a breach of the late treaty. Another war was the natural consequence; and the Scottish king, with his eldest son, were killed in attempting to take the castle of Alnwick, A. D. 1093.

Though Malcolm left male heirs, yet his throne was usurped, first by his brother Donald Bane, and afterwards by Duncan, his natural son. By the interposition of the king of England, however, Edgar, lawful son of Malcolm, was placed upon the Scottish throne. After a reign distinguished by no remarkable event, Edgar died in 1107, and was succeeded by his brother Alexander, surnamed the Fierce, from the impetuosity of his temper. But though impetuous, he was severely just, and rendered himself chefly remarkable by the attention he paid to the administration of justice and redress of wrong. A conspiracy formed against the life of this good king was dissipated by the vigour of his measures; and after assisting Henry I. of England in a war with the Welsh, he died in 1124. Having left no issue, Alexander was succeeded by David, his younger brother, commonly called St. David, on account of his great piety and excessive liberality to the church and clergy. David interested himself in the affairs of England, espousing the cause of Maud against Stephen. In several engagements he was successful, but was in others defeated, and found himself unable effectually to support the cause he had undertaken. He died in 1153, and was succeeded by Malcolm IV., a prince of a weak body, and no less feeble mind, who, dying in 1165, left his crown to his brother William.

In the beginning of his reign, William recovered from Henry of England the earldom of Northumberland, which had been relinquished by Malcolm; but afterwards leading an army into England, and conducting himself with too little caution, he was made prisoner by surprise, and detained in captivity, till, in order to regain his liberty, he consented to declare himself a vassal of England, and to do homage for his whole kingdom. Richard Cœur de Lion, however, who succeeded Henry, remitted the oppressive terms, and declared Scotland to be an independent kingdom; a measure to which he was induced, partly by the injustice of the

claim itself, and partly by his wish of rendering the Scots his friends, during an expedition he was about to undertake in Palestine. William showed his gratitude for the restoration of his independence, by continuing a faithful ally of the English till his death, in 1214.

William was succeeded by his son, Alexander II., a youth of sixteen. He took the side of the English barons in their contentions with John, their feeble and imprudent monarch. He was a wise and good prince, and maintained with steadiness and spirit the independency of his crown abroad, and the authority of his government at home. At his death, in 1249, he was succeeded by his son, Alexander, a child of eight years of age, who was immediately crowned at Scone as Alexander III. Having been betrothed, when an infant, to the princess Margaret of England, their nuptials were celebrated at York in 1251, and he did homage to Henry for his English possessions. The latter monarch demanded homage for the kingdom of Scotland, but the young prince replied with spirit, that he came to York to marry the princess of England, not to treat of state affairs, and that he would not take so important a step without the concurrence of the national council. One of the principal events of Alexander's reign was the battle of Largs. Haco, king of Norway, having collected a fleet of one hundred and sixty ships, sailed towards Scotland with a numerous army, A. D. 1263, with a view to recover such of the western isles as had formerly belonged to his crown, but which had been wrested from it by the Scots. He made himself master of Arran and Bute, and afterwards landed on the coast of Ayrshire. Alexander attacked him at Largs, where, after a fierce contest, victory at last declared for the Scots, and the greater part of the invading army fell either in the action or the pursuit. Haco reached the Orkneys, but soon afterwards died, as is said, of a broken heart, and was succeeded by Magnus, who, discouraged by the disaster which had befallen his father, yielded all his rights to the Western Islands and the Isle of Man to the crown of Scotland, for the sum of four thousand marks, to be paid in four years, and a quit-rent of one hundred marks, yearly; A. D. 1266. The Norwegians still retained the Orkney and Shetland islands. From this period, Alexander was employed for several years in maintaining the independence of the Scottish church against the pretensions of the pope, and in restraining the encroachments of the clergy. His reign was a long and prosperous one, and his death was, in its consequences, a serious calamity to Scotland. While riding in the dusk of the evening along the sea-coast of Fife, his horse started, and he was thrown over the rock and killed on the spot.

A. D. 1286.—Alexander's children had all died before him. His daughter Margaret had married Eric, king of Norway, and died, leaving issue one daughter, Margaret, usually called the Maiden of Norway, the now undoubted heiress of the crown of Scotland, and recognized as such by the states of the kingdom about three weeks after Alexander's death. The same convention appointed a regency of six noblemen during the absence of the young queen. These regents for some time acted with wisdom and unanimity; but two of them dying, dissensions arose among the remaining four, and Eric, king of Norway, apprehensive for the interests of his daughter, applied to Edward, king of England, for his assistance and protection. Edward had already formed a scheme for uniting the two kingdoms by the marriage of his eldest son, Edward, with the queen of Scots. A treaty was entered into for this purpose; but the Maiden of Norway unfortunately died at Orkney, on her passage to Scotland, and the nation was struck with grief and consternation in beholding the extinction of a race of sovereigns who had distinguished themselves for their bravery and wisdom, and in anticipating the miseries of a contested succession.

The line of Alexander's descendants being thus extinguished, the right

of succession devolved on the descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, third son of David I. Among these, Robert Bruce and John Baliol appeared as competitors for the crown. Bruce was the son of Isabel, earl David's second daughter; Baliol, the grandson of Margaret, the eldest daughter. Although the right was incontestable in Baliol, the prejudices of the people favoured Bruce; each was supported by a powerful faction, and arms alone, it was feared, must decide the dispute. In order to avoid the threatened miseries of civil war, Edward I., king of England, was chosen umpire, and both parties agreed to acquiesce in his decree. This measure had nearly proved fatal to the independence of Scotland. Edward was artful, brave, and enterprising. The anarchy which prevailed in Scotland invited him first to seize, and then to subject the kingdom. Under the authority of an umpire, he summoned all the Scottish barons to Norham; and having gained some, and intimidated others, he prevailed on all who were present, not excepting Bruce and Baliol, the competitors, to acknowledge Scotland to be a fief of the crown of England, and to swear fealty to him as their sovereign lord. Edward now demanded possession of the kingdom, that he might be able to deliver it to him whose right should be found preferable; and such was the pusillanimity of the nobles, and the impatience of the competitors, that both assented to his demand, and Gilbert d'Umpfreville, earl of Angus, was the only man who refused to surrender the castles in his custody to the enemy of his country. Edward, finding Baliol had the best right, and was the least formidable of the two competitors, gave judgment in his favour, and Baliol once more confessed himself the vassal of England. Edward now concluded that his dominion was fully established in Scotland, and began to assume the master; his new vassals, however, bore the yoke with impatience. Provoked by his haughtiness, the humble spirit of Baliol began to mutiny. But Edward, who had no further use for such a pageant king, forced him to resign the crown, and attempted to seize it, as having fallen to himself by the rebellion of his vassal.

Sir William Wallace, a hero and patriot, now first made his appearance, and almost singly ventured to take arms in defence of the kingdom; but his courage, although for a time it revived the spirit of his countrymen, could not save them from the power of the English king. He had lived a free man, and a free man he resolved to die; but the season of resistance was passed. He at length fell into Edward's hands, was arraigned at Westminster as a traitor, and an ignominious death was the reward of his unexampled bravery. Robert Bruce, the grandson of the competitor of Baliol, then came forward, to assert his own rights and to vindicate the honour of his country. The nobles crowded to his standard, and many battles were fought with the English. The Scots, though often vanquished, were not subdued; the prudent conduct of Bruce, aided by the national enthusiasm, baffled the repeated efforts of Edward; and, although the war continued, with little intermission, upwards of seventy years, Bruce and his posterity kept possession of Scotland.

But while the sword, the ultimate judge of all disputes between contending nations, was employed to terminate this controversy, neither Edward nor the Scots seemed to distrust the justice of their cause; and both appealed to history and records, and from these produced, in their own favour, such evidence as they pretended to be unanswerable. The letters and memorials addressed by each party to the pope, who was then reverenced as the common father, and often appealed to as the common judge of all Christian princes, are still extant. The fabulous tales of the early British history, the partial testimony of ignorant chroniclers, suppositions, treaties, and charters, are the proofs on which Edward founded his title to the sovereignty of Scotland; and the homage done by the Scottish monarchs for their lands in England is preposterously supposed to imply the subjec-

tion of the whole kingdom. Ill-founded, however, as their right was, the English did not fail to revive it, in all the subsequent quarrels between the two kingdoms, while the Scots disclaimed it with the utmost indignation. To this we must impute the fierce and implacable hatred to each other, which long inflamed both. Their national antipathies were excited, not only by the usual circumstances of frequent hostilities, and reciprocal injuries, but the English considered the Scots as vassals who had presumed to rebel, and the Scots, in their turn, regarded the English as usurpers who aimed at enslaving their country.

A. D. 1336.—Robert Bruce began to reign in 1306, and no prince was ever more indebted to his nobles. Their valour conquered the kingdom, and placed him on the throne, and he bestowed upon them, in return, the lands of the vanquished. Robert died in 1329, and was succeeded by his son David. He had been an exile in France, and afterwards a prisoner in England, and being involved in continental war with Edward III. of England, had not time to attend to the internal police of the kingdom. He died without children in 1371, and was succeeded by Robert Stuart.

CHAPTER II.

THE HOUSE OF STUART.

A. D. 1371.—The reign of Robert II. (the first of the House of Stuart), is replete with accounts of skirmishes and inroads, but of very little consequence in an historical point of view. He died in 1390, and was succeeded by Robert III., who was a man of weak mind and sickly constitution, and very unfit to check the growing power of the martial barons. Robert died in 1406, and an interregnum of eighteen years took place, owing to James, his successor, being a prisoner in England.

A. D. 1424.—The English had unjustly detained the heir of the Scottish throne, but they certainly made some amends for their injustice, by the care they took in his education. During his long residence in England, he had an opportunity of observing the feudal system in a more advanced state, and refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it in his own kingdom. He saw there nobles great, but not independent; a king powerful, though far from absolute; he saw a regular administration of government, wise laws enacted, and a nation flourishing and happy, because all ranks were accustomed to obey them. Full of these ideas, he returned to his native country, which presented to him a very different scene. The royal authority, never great, was now contemptible, by having been so long delegated to regents. The ancient patrimony and revenues of the crown were almost totally alienated. The license of many years had rendered the nobles independent. Universal anarchy prevailed; the weak were opposed to the oppression of the strong; the barbarous chieftain ruled at pleasure, and neither feared the king, nor felt for the people.

James was too wise to employ open force to correct such rooted evils; neither the men nor the times would have borne it. He applied the gentler remedy of laws and statutes, tending visibly to re-establish order, tranquillity, and justice, in the kingdom. But, at the same time that he endeavoured to secure these blessings to the people, he discovered his intention to recover those possessions of which the crown had been unjustly deprived, and for that purpose obtained an act, by which he was impowered to summon such persons as had obtained crown-lands during the three last reigns, to produce the rights by which they held them. As this statute threatened the property of the nobles, another, which passed in a subsequent parliament, aimed a dreadful blow at their power. By it the

leagues and combinations which rendered the nobles so formidable to the crown, were declared unlawful. James now took bolder and more decisive steps. During the sitting of parliament, he seized his cousin Murdo, duke of Albany, and his sons; the earls of Douglas, Lenox, Angus, March, and above twenty others of the first rank, who appeared restless under the new statutes. To all of them, however, he was soon after reconciled, except Albany and his sons, and Lenox. These were tried by their peers, and condemned. Their execution struck the whole order with terror, and the forfeiture of their estates added considerably to the possessions of the crown. He seized likewise the earldoms of Buchan and Strathern upon different pretexts, and that of Mar fell to him by inheritance. The patience and inactivity of the nobles, while the king was proceeding so rapidly in aggrandizing the crown, are amazing. The only obstruction he met with, was from a slight insurrection, headed by the duke of Albany's youngest son, which was soon suppressed. Encouraged by the facility with which he had advanced, James ventured upon a measure that irritated the whole body of the nobility. The father of George Dunbar, earl of March, had taken arms against Robert III. the king's father; but that crime had been pardoned, and his lands restored, by Robert, duke of Albany, during the confinement of James in England. Under the pretext that the regent had exceeded his power, and that it was the prerogative of the king alone to pardon treason, James declared the pardon to be void. Many of the nobles and great men held lands by no other right than what they derived from grant of the two dukes of Albany. Although Dunbar was at present the only sufferer, it caused great alarm, as the precedent might be extended. Terror and discontent spread far and wide upon this discovery of the king's intentions; the common danger called on the whole order to unite, and to make one bold stand, before they were stripped successively of their acquisitions. A conspiracy was formed against the king's life by those who had been the chief sufferers under the new laws, and the first intelligence of it was brought to him while he lay in his camp before Roxburgh castle. He instantly dismissed his nobles and their vassals, in whom he could place no confidence, and retired to a monastery near Perth, where he was soon afterwards murdered in a most cruel manner, in 1437. James was a prince of great abilities, and, in general, conducted his operations with prudence; he was beloved by the people, and hated by the nobles. His maxims and manners were too refined for the age and country in which he lived. He was succeeded by his son, James II., an infant.

A. D. 1437.—Crichton, who had been the minister of James I., still held the reins of government. He did not relinquish the design of the late king for humbling the nobility, but endeavoured to inspire his pupil with the same sentiments. But what James had attempted to effect slowly, and by legal means, his son and Crichton pursued with the impetuosity natural to Scotchmen. William, the sixth earl of Douglas, was the first victim to their barbarous policy. He was decoyed to an interview in the castle of Edinburgh, and there murdered with his brother. Crichton, however, gained little by this act of treachery, which rendered him universally odious. William, the eighth earl of Douglas, was no less powerful, and no less formidable to the crown than his predecessor; he had united against his sovereign almost one half of his kingdom, when his credulity led him into the same snare which had been fatal to the former earl. Relying on the king's promises, who had now attained to the years of manhood, and having obtained a safe conduct under the great seal, he ventured to meet him in Stirling castle. James urged him to dissolve that dangerous confederacy into which he had entered; the earl obstinately refused. "If you will not," said the enraged monarch, drawing his dagger, "this shall;" and stabbed him to the heart. This filled the nation with astonish-

ment. The earl's vassals ran to arms, marched to Stirling, burnt the town, and threatened to besiege the castle. An accommodation, however, ensued, on what terms is not known; but the king's jealousy, and the new earl's power and resentment, prevented it from being of long continuance. Both took the field at the head of their armies, and met near Abercorn. That of the earl, composed chiefly of borderers, was far superior to the king's both in number and in valour; and a single battle must, in all probability, have decided whether the house of Stuart or of Douglas was henceforth to possess the throne of Scotland. But as his troops were impatiently expecting the signal to engage, the earl ordered them to retire to their camp. His principal officers, now convinced of his want of genius and courage, deserted him; and he was soon after driven out of the kingdom, and obliged to depend for his subsistence on the friendship of the king of England. The ruin of this great family, which had so long rivalled and overawed the crown, secured the king for some time from opposition, and the royal authority remained uncontrolled, and almost absolute. James did not suffer this favourable interval to pass unimproved; he procured the consent of parliament to laws more advantageous to the prerogative, and more subversive of the privileges of the aristocracy, than were ever obtained by any former or subsequent monarch of Scotland. During the remainder of his reign, this prince pursued the plan which he had began with the utmost vigour; and had not a sudden death, occasioned by the splinter of a cannon which burst near him at the siege of Roxburgh, prevented his progress, he wanted neither genius nor courage to perfect it, and Scotland might, in all probability, have been the first kingdom in Europe which would have seen the subversion of the feudal system.

A. D. 1460.—James III. succeeded his father in 1460, and discovered nc less eagerness than his father, or grandfather, to humble the nobility; but far inferior to either of them in abilities or address, he adopted a plan extremely impolitic, and his reign was disastrous, as well as his end tragical. James feared and hated his nobles; he kept them at an unusual distance, and bestowed every mark of confidence and affection upon a few mean persons. Shut up with these in his castle of Stirling, he seldom appeared in public, and amused himself in architecture, music, and other arts, which were then little esteemed. The nobles resented this conduct in the king, and combinations, secret intrigues with England, and all the usual preparations for civil war, were the effects of their resentment. Alexander, duke of Albany, and John, earl of Mar, the king's brothers, two young men of turbulent and ambitious spirits, and incensed against James, who treated them with great coldness, entered deeply into all their cabals. The king detected their designs before they were ripe for execution, and seizing his two brothers, committed the duke of Albany to Edinburgh castle. The earl of Mar having remonstrated with too much boldness, it is said, was murdered by the king's command. Albany, apprehensive of the same fate, made his escape out of the castle, and reached France. James' attachment to favourites rendering him every day more odious to his nobles, soon inspired Albany with more ambitious and criminal thoughts. He concluded a treaty with Edward IV. of England, in which he assumed the name of Alexander, king of Scots; and, in return for the assistance which was promised him towards dethroning his brother, he bound himself, as soon as he was put in possession of the kingdom, to swear fealty and do homage to the English monarch, to renounce the ancient alliance with France, to contract a new one with England, and to surrender some of the strongest castles and most valuable counties in Scotland. The aid which the duke so basely purchased, at the price of his own honour and the independence of his country, was punctually granted him, and Richard, duke of Gloucester, with a powerful army,

conducted him towards Scotland. The danger of a foreign invasion soon induced James to ask the assistance of those nobles whom he had so long treated with contempt. They expressed their readiness to stand forward in defence of their king and country against all invaders, and took the field at the head of a large army of their followers; but it was evident at the same time that they were animated by a stronger desire to redress their own grievances than to annoy the enemy, and with a fixed determination of punishing those favourites whose insolence had become intolerable. This resolution they executed in the camp near Lauder. Having previously concerted their plan, the earls of Angus, Huntley, and Lauder, followed by almost all the barons of note in the army, forcibly entered the apartments of the king, seized every one therein, except Ramsay, who had taken shelter in his arms, and hanged them immediately over a bridge. Among the most remarkable of those who had engrossed the king's favour, were Cochran, a mason, Hommil, a tailor, Leonard, a smith, Rogers, a musician, and Torlifan, a fencing-master. Having no reason to confide in an army so little under his command, James dismissed it, and shut himself up in the castle of Edinburgh. At length Albany made his peace with the king, but it was not of long duration; for James abandoned himself once more to his favourites, and Albany, again disgusted, retired to his castle at Dunbar, and renewed his former confederacy with Edward. The death of Edward, soon after, blasted his hopes of reigning in Scotland. He fled first to England, and then to France, and from that time he took no part in the affairs of his native country. Grown fonder of retirement than ever, and sunk into indolence or superstition, James suffered his whole authority to devolve upon his favourites. The nobles flew to arms, and obliged or persuaded the duke of Rothsay, the king's eldest son, a youth of fifteen, to set himself at their head; and they then openly declared their intention of depriving James of the crown. Roused by this danger, the king quitted his retirement, took the field, and encountered them at Bannockburn; but his army was soon routed, and he was slain in the pursuit. Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to favourites, and all the vices of a feeble mind, are visible in his whole conduct. Many of those who acted against James, being fearful of the terrors of excommunication for having imbrued their hands in the blood of their king, endeavoured to atone for the treatment of the father by their loyalty and duty towards the son. They placed him instantly on the throne, and the whole kingdom soon united in acknowledging his authority.

A. D. 1488.—James IV. ascended the Scottish throne in the year 1488. He was naturally generous and brave; loved magnificence, and delighted in arms. Indeed, so well suited was he for those over whom he ruled, that during his reign the ancient enmity between the king and the nobles seemed almost to have entirely ceased. He envied not their splendour, because it contributed to the ornament of his court; and their power he considered as the security of his kingdom, not as an object of terror to himself. This confidence on his part met with duty and affection on theirs; and in his war with England he experienced how much a king beloved by his nobles is able to perform. Through the ardour of his courage, rather than from any prospect of national advantage, he declared war against England, and was followed by as gallant an army as ever any of his ancestors had led into England. The battle of Flodden Field, [see "England," vol I.] gained by the earl of Surrey over James, and in which he lost his life, served to humble the aristocracy of Scotland more than all the premeditated attacks of the preceding kings. Twelve earls, thirteen lords, five eldest sons of noblemen, and a great number of barons, fell with the king.

A. D. 1517.—James V. succeeded his father when only one year old. The office of regent was conferred upon his cousin, the duke of Albany,

a man of genuis and enterprize, a native of France. A stranger to the manners, the laws and the language of the people over whom he was called to rule, he acted rather as a viceroy of the French king, than the governor of Scotland. When James had attained his thirteenth year, Albany retired to France; and the nobles agreed that the king should assume the government, with the assistance of eight counsellors, among whom was the earl of Angus, who soon got the whole authority into his own hands. James was continually surrounded by the earl's spies and confidants, who closely watched his motions; he, however, eluded all their vigilance, and, escaping from Falkland, fled to the castle of Stirling, the residence of the queen, his mother, and the only place of strength in the kingdom which was not in the hands of the Douglasses. The nobles soon appeared at Stirling, and the court of James was presently filled by persons of the first distinction. In a parliament held soon after, Angus and his adherents were attainted, and he was at length obliged to fly to England for refuge. James had now not only the name, but the authority of a king. His understanding was good, and his person graceful; but his education had been neglected. He, however, formed a plan for humbling the power of the nobles, more profound and more systematic than any of his predecessors. The Scottish monarchs had the sole right of nomination to vacant bishoprics and abbeys; and James naturally concluded, that men who expected preferment from his favour, would be willing to merit it by promoting his designs. Happily for him, the nobles had not yet recovered the blow which fell on their order at Flodden, and James treated them with coldness and reserve. Those offices which, from long possession, they considered as appropriated to their order, were bestowed on ecclesiastics, who alone possessed his confidence, together with a few gentlemen of inferior rank. These ministers were chosen with judgment; and Cardinal Beaton was a man of superior genius. However, a false step which they took, presented to the nobles an advantage which they did not fail to improve.

Henry VIII. of England, uncle to James, proposed a personal interview with him at York, with a view to induce him to throw off his allegiance to the pope; and James accepted the invitation. By the persuasion of his ministers, however, James broke his agreement with Henry, who, in expectation of meeting him, had already come to York; and that haughty monarch resented the affront, by declaring war against Scotland. James was now obliged to have recourse to his nobles for the defence of his dominions. At his command they assembled their followers, it is true, but with the same dispositions which had animated their ancestors in the reign of James III. The king, perceiving their designs, disbanded the army, and retired into the heart of the kingdom. Impatience, indignation, and resentment against the nobles, filled his bosom by turns. He became pensive, sullen, and retired. In order to revive his spirits, an inroad on the western border was concerted by his minister, who prevailed upon the barons in the neighbouring provinces, to raise as many troops as were thought necessary, and to enter England. But nothing could remove the king's aversion to his nobility, or diminish his jealousy of their power. He would not even trust them with the command of the forces which they had assembled, but appointed Oliver Sinclair, his favourite, to that post. As might have been foreseen, Sinclair no sooner appeared to take upon him the dignity conferred, than an universal mutiny took place in the army. Five hundred English, who happened to be drawn up in sight, taking advantage of this disorder, attacked the Scots; when hatred to the king, and contempt for his general, produced an effect to which there is no parallel in history. Ten thousand men fled before an army so vastly inferior, without striking a blow. About thirty were killed, above a thousand were taken prisoners, and among them one hundred and sixty persons of condi-

tion. The small number of the English prevented their taking more prisoners. As sooner as this affair reached the king, all the violent passions which are the enemies of life preyed on his mind; the deepest melancholy and despair succeeded to the furious transports of his rage. Death relieved him from his anxiety; but whether from the diseases of his mind, or by poison, is not sufficiently ascertained. It took place in December, 1542.

CHAPTER III.

THE REIGN OF MARY.—HOUSE OF STUART.

A. D. 1543.—MARY, only child of James V. and Mary of Guise, who was born only a few days before the death of her father, succeeded to the crown. The situation in which he left the kingdom, and the perils to be apprehended from a lengthened regency, alarmed all ranks of men with the prospect of a turbulent and disastrous reign. Cardinal Beaton, who for many years had been considered as prime minister, was the first that claimed the high dignity of regent; in support of his pretensions, he produced a will, which he himself had forged in the name of the late king, and, without any other right, instantly assumed the title of regent. He hoped, by the assistance of the clergy, the countenance of France, the connivance of the queen-dowager, and the support of the whole popish faction, to hold by force what he had seized on by fraud. But Beaton had enjoyed power too long to be a favourite of the nation. James Hamilton, earl of Arran, the next heir to the queen, was called forth, by the general voice of the nation, to take upon himself the high office; and the nobles, who were assembled for that purpose, unanimously proclaimed him regent. Arran had scarcely taken possession of his new dignity, when a negotiation was opened with England, which gave rise to events of the most fatal consequence to himself, and to the kingdom. This negotiation embraced a proposal from Henry, of the marriage of Edward, his only son, with the young queen of Scots. All those who feared the cardinal, or who desired a change in religion, were pleased with the idea of an alliance that would afford protection to the doctrine which they had embraced, as well as to their own persons, against the rage of that powerful and haughty prelate. The designs which Henry had formed upon Scotland, were obvious from the marriage which he had proposed, and he had not dexterity enough to disguise them. He demanded that the young queen should be put under his care, and the government of the kingdom placed in his hands during her minority. The Scotch parliament consented to a treaty of marriage and of union, but upon terms somewhat more equal. The Scots agreed to send their sovereign into England as soon as she had attained the age of ten years, and to deliver six persons of the first rank, to be kept as hostages by Henry till the queen's arrival at his court. On the side of Henry, it was agreed that the queen should continue to reside in Scotland, and himself remain excluded from any share in the government of the kingdom. The cardinal complained loudly that the regent had betrayed the kingdom to its most inveterate enemies, and sacrificed its honour to his own ambition; he lamented to see an ancient kingdom consenting to its own servitude, and descending into the ignominious station of a province, and in one hour, by the weakness or treachery of one man, surrendering everything for which the Scottish nation had struggled and fought during so many ages. These remonstrances of the cardinal were not without effect, and the whole nation declared against the allaince which had been concluded. Argyll, Huntley, Bothwell, and other powerful barons, declared openly against the alliance with England; by their as-

sistance the cardinal seized on the persons of the young queen and her mother.

On the 25th of August, 1543, the regent ratified the treaty with Henry, and proclaimed the cardinal, who still continued to oppose it, an enemy to his country. On the 3d of September, he secretly withdrew from Edinburgh, and had an interview with the cardinal at Callandar, where he not only renounced the friendship of England, and declared for the interests of France, but also changed his sentiments concerning religion, and publicly renounced the doctrine of the reformers in the Franciscan church at Sterling. The cardinal was now in possession of everything his ambition could desire, and exercised all the authority of a regent, without the envy and opprobrium attached to the name. Henry VIII. was not of a temper to bear tamely the indignity with which he had been treated both by the regent and the parliament of Scotland, and determined on invading that country. The earl of Hertford had the command of the army destined for the enterprise, and landed it, without opposition, a few miles above Leith. He marched directly for Edinburgh, which city he entered May 3d, 1544. After plundering the adjacent country, he set fire to both these towns; then putting his booty on board the fleet, reached the English borders in safety. Peace followed soon after; but Cardinal Beaton had previously been murdered by the means of Norman Leslie, eldest son of the earl of Rothes, whom the cardinal had treated not only with injustice, put contempt. The prelate resided at that time in the castle of St. Andrew's, which he had fortified at a great expense, and, in the opinion of the age, had rendered it impregnable. His retinue was numerous, the town at his devotion, and the neighbouring country full of his dependents. In this situation Leslie, with fifteen others, undertook to surprise his castle, and assassinate him; and their success was equal to the boldness of the attempt. May 20th, 1546, early in the morning, they seized on the gate of the castle, which was open for the accommodation of the workmen who were employed in finishing the fortifications; and having placed sentries at the door of the cardinal's apartment, they awakened his domestics one by one, and turning them out of the castle, they murdered him without offering violence to any other person, thereby delivering their country from a man whose pride was insupportable, and whose cruelty and cunning were great checks to the reformation. The death of Beaton was fatal to the catholic religion, and to the French interest in Scotland. The regent threatened vengeance, but the threat was as impotent as it was unwise. The death of Henry VIII., which happened January 28th, 1547, blasted the hopes of the conspirators, by whom they were supported both with money and provisions. Henry II. of France, sent powerful succours to the regent, under the command of Leon Strozzi; and the conspirators, after a short resistance, surrendered, with the assurance of their lives, and were sent prisoners to France. The castle, the monument of Beaton's power and vanity, was demolished in obedience to the canon law, which denounces its anathemas even against the house in which the sacred blood of a cardinal happens to be shed, and ordains it to be laid in ashes.

Edward VI. was now king of England, and the earl of Hertford, now duke of Somerset, and protector of the kingdom, entered Scotland at the head of eighteen thousand men; at the same time a fleet of sixty ships appeared on the coast, to second his land forces. The Scots had for some time seen this storm gathering, and were prepared for it. Their army was almost double that of the enemy, and posted to the greatest advantage on a rising ground above Musselburg, not far from the banks of the Esk. Confident of success, they attacked the English, under the duke of Somerset, near Pinkey, September 10th, 1547, who, taking advantage of their impetuous haste, routed them with considerable loss. The encounter in the field was not long, but the pursuit was continued for some

time, and to a great distance ; the three roads by which the Scots fled, were strewed with spears, swords, and targets, and covered with the bodies of the slain. More than ten thousand men fell on this day, one of the most fatal Scotland had ever seen. A few were taken prisoners, and among them some persons of distinction.

A. D. 1548.—The Scottish nobles falling in with the prejudices of the queen dowager in favour of France, in the violence of their resentment against England, voluntarily proposed to Henry II. of France, a marriage of their young queen, only six years old, with the dauphin, eldest son of Henry II., and to send her to his court for education. Henry without hesitation accepted these offers, and prepared for a vigorous defence of his new acquisition. On the 15th of June, 1548, the treaty was concluded by the parliament assembled in the camp before Haddington ; and Mary was immediately sent to France, at that time notoriously the most corrupt court in Europe. Here she acquired every accomplishment that could add to her charms as a woman, and contracted many of those prejudices which occasioned her misfortunes as a queen. Peace was soon afterwards made with England ; and both the British and Scottish nations lost power by this unhappy quarrel, while France obtained a decided advantage. The reformation, however, gained ground. At this time appeared the famous John Knox, a man whose natural intrepidity of mind placed him far above fear. He began his public ministry at St. Andrew's, in 1547, with that success which always accompanies a bold and popular eloquence. He was patronized by the conspirators while they kept possession of the castle, which he had made the place of his abode. At this time the queen-dowager, Mary of Guise, aspired to the office of regent. She had already nearly engrossed the administration of affairs into her hands. Her designs were concealed with the utmost care, and advanced by address and refinement ; her brothers entered warmly into the scheme, and supported it with all their credit at the court of France. The queen-dowager visited France in 1550 ; from thence overtures were made to the regent to resign his situation in her favour, which the king of France enforced, by an artful admixture of threats and promises ; so that he was induced to relinquish his power, which he formally laid down in 1554, and the parliament raised Mary of Guise to that dignity. Thus was a woman, and a stranger, advanced to the supreme authority in Scotland !

A. D. 1558.—On the 14th of April, the marriage of the young queen took place with the dauphin Francis, and the parliament of Scotland sent eight of its members to represent their whole body at the nuptials. In the treaty of marriage, the dauphin was allowed to assume the title of king of Scotland as an honorary title. The French king, however, soon after insisted that the dauphin's title should be publicly recognized, and all the right appertaining to the husband of a queen should be vested in his person, upon which the Scotch parliament, (Nov. 29), passed an act conferring the crown matrimonial on the dauphin. The earl of Argyll, and James Stuart, prior of St. Andrew's, were appointed to carry the crown and other ensigns of royalty to the dauphin. But from this they were diverted by the part they were called upon to act in a more interesting scene, which now began to open. The bigoted Queen Mary, of England, whose religious persecutions had earned for her a still more offensive name, died on the 17th of November, 1558 ; and Elizabeth, her sister, took possession of the English throne. In order to gratify the arbitrary caprice of Henry, Elizabeth as well as her predecessor, Mary, had been declared illegitimate by the parliament ; but in his last will he declared them the successors on the throne to their brother Edward ; at the same time passing by the posterity of his sister Margaret, queen of Scotland, and continuing the line of succession to his sister, the duchess of

Suffolk. Rome trembled for the catholic faith under a queen of such abilities as Elizabeth was known to possess. Spain and France were equally alarmed. Instigated by the impetuous ambition of the Guises, who governed the court of France, Henry, soon after the death of Mary persuaded his daughter-in-law, and his son, her husband, to assume the title of king and queen of England. Thev affected to publish this to all Europe and used that style and appellation in public papers. The arms of England was engraved on their coin, and on their plate, and borne by them on all occasions; but no preparations were made to support this impolitic and premature claim. Elizabeth was already seated on her throne; she possessed all the intrepidity of spirit, and all the arts of policy which were necessary for maintaining that station; and England was growing into reputation for naval power, while that of France was neglected. It was absurd to expect that the Scottish protestants would assist to dethrone a queen whom all Europe began to consider as the most powerful guardian and defender of the reformed faith. Yet, absurd as it was, in 1559, the queen-regent issued a proclamation, enjoining all persons to observe the approaching festival of Easter according to the Romish ritual. The protestants, who saw danger approaching, in order to avert it, engaged the earl of Glencairn, and Sir Hugh Campbell, of London, to expostulate with her. Without disguise or apology, she avowed to them her resolution of extirpating the reformed religion out of the kingdom, and soon after summoned all the protestant preachers in the kingdom to a court of justice, to be held at Stirling on the 10th day of May. The reformed convened in great numbers to attended their pastors to Stirling. The regent being alarmed at their being so numerous, although unarmed, promised to put a stop to the intended trial, and they dispersed towards their own habitations. The regent had little regard to her promise. The 10th of May arrived. The names of those were called who had been summoned; and, upon their non-appearance, they were pronounced outlaws. This conduct occasioned an insurrction in Perth; the churches were defaced, the altars were overturned, the images broken in pieces, the pictures torn, and the monasteries almost levelled with the ground. A truce was soon after concluded between the regent and the protestants, which was presently broken by the former, and the protestants again took to arms, not only with a view of redressing their religious, but their civil grievances, and the protestant army, wherever it came, spread the ardour of reformation. The gates of every town were thrown open to receive them; and, without striking a blow, they took possession of Edinburgh, June 29, 1559.

On the 8th of July, Henry II. of France died; and Francis, the husband of Mary, queen of Scots, succeeded to the throne. The queen-regent was soon after deprived of her power by the protestants; but the French garrison in Leith refused to surrender that place, nor were the Scots in a condition to compel them. In this situation of affairs, application was made to Elizabeth for assistance. She sent to them a supply of four thousand crowns, which was intercepted by Bothwell, and carried off. A second application was made, imploring her assistance. Elizabeth had observed the prevalence of French councils, and had already come to a resolution with regard to the part she would act, if their power should grow more formidable. In January, 1560, an English fleet arrived in the frith of Forth, and cast anchor in the road of Leith. The English army, consisting of six thousand foot and two thousand horse, under the command of Lord Grey of Wilton, and attended by a prodigious number of protestants, entered Scotland early in the spring, and advanced towards Leith, which they invested. Nothing could now save the French troops shut up in Leith, but the immediate conclusion of peace, or the arrival of a powerful army from the continent. They chose the former; and Elizabeth not

only obtained honourable conditions for her allies, but for herself; particularly an acknowledgment of her right to the crown of England from Francis and Mary, who in the treaty solemnly engaged neither to assume the title, nor to bear the arms of king and queen of England, in any time to come; this peace was signed July 6, 1560. While this peace was negotiating, the queen-regent died; and on the 4th of December Francis II. paid the debt of nature. He was a prince of a weak constitution, and still weaker intellect. The ancient confederacy of the two kingdoms had already been broken; and by the death of Francis the chief bond of union which remained was dissolved.

In 1561, the convention invited the queen to return to Scotland, her native country, and to assume the reins of government. She sailed from Calais in a galley, and on the 19th of August landed safely at Leith, where she was received by her subjects with acclamations of joy. With a view to gain Elizabeth's favour, and conformable to the plan which had been concerted in France, Mary committed the administration of affairs entirely to protestants. Elizabeth commanded Randolph to congratulate her on her safe return; and Mary sent Maitland to the English court with ceremonious expressions of regard for the queen. Mary had now been several years a widow, and numerous applications from different courts were made for her hand without effect. The queen of England recommended Robert Dudley, afterwards earl of Leicester to her choice. The high spirit of Mary could not well bear the first overture of a match with an English subject. She dissembled, however, with the English resident, and married her cousin, Lord Darnley, eldest son of the earl of Lenox. The ceremony was performed in the queen's chapel, according to the rites of the Romish church, on the 25th of July, 1565. Darnley's external accomplishments had excited that sudden and violent passion which raised him to the throne. But his understanding was weak, and he was inexperienced and conceited. A few months after marriage their domestic quarrels began to be observed. Rizzio, an Italian musician, whom Darnley had at first taken into great confidence, had now incurred his displeasure; and he imputed the change in the queen's conduct towards him, to his insinuations; and Mary's behaviour was undoubtedly such as to confirm these suspicions. She treated this Italian with a familiarity, and admitted him to a share in her confidence, which neither his first condition, nor the office of French secretary to the queen, which she had lately bestowed on him, gave him any title. He was perpetually in her company; and, together with a few favourites, was the companion of all her private amusements. The haughty spirit of Darnley could not bear the intrusion of such an upstart, and, impatient of any delay, he resolved to get rid of him by violence. Nothing remained but to concert the plan of operation, and choose the actors. The place appointed for Rizzio's murder was the queen's bed-chamber. Darnley himself selected it, in order that he might have the satisfaction of reproaching him with his crimes before the queen's face. On the 9th of March, 1556, Morton entered the court of the palace with one hundred and sixty men, and seized all the gates without resistance. While the queen was at supper with the countess of Argyll and Rizzio, the king suddenly entered the apartment. Close behind him was Ruthven, clad in complete armour; and three or four followed him. Rizzio, conscious of his baseness, supposing himself their victim, took shelter behind the queen, taking hold of her, hoping that she might prove some protection to him. Numbers of armed men rushed into the chamber. Ruthven drew his dagger, and furiously commanded Rizzio to leave a place of which he was so unworthy, and which he had occupied too long. Mary employed tears, entreaties, and threatenings, to save her favourite; but notwithstanding all these, he was torn from her by violence; and before he could be dragged through the next apartment, his body was pierced with fifty-six wounds.

Mary was but a very short time without a favourite. James Hepburn, earl of Bothwell, a man of base character, gained an ascendancy over her heart; and the king was treated with indifference and neglect. On the 19th of June, 1566, she was delivered of a son. This event did not in the least alter her opinion in favour of her husband, and her aversion to him was excessive. Bothwell was the object of her admiration. Henry had for some time resided at Glasgow, where he had suffered severely from illness. Thither Mary went, and prevailed upon him to come to Edinburgh, to which place he was carried in a litter. The house prepared for his reception belonged to the provost of a collegiate church, called Kirk of Field, and had all the advantages of healthful air to recommend it, and its solitude rendered it a proper place for the commission of that crime, with a view to which it seems manifestly to have been chosen. Mary attended the king with assiduous care; she even slept two nights in the chamber under his apartment. On Sunday, the 9th of February, 1567, she left him, in order to be present at a masque in the palace. At two o'clock the next morning the house was blown up with gunpowder. The dead body of the king, with that of a servant who slept in the same room, were found lying in an adjacent garden, without the city wall, untouched by fire, and with no bruise or mark of violence. The queen and Bothwell were generally suspected of the murder, not only by her own subjects, but by all Europe, over which the news spread rapidly, and excited universal horror; but what contributed most to convince the world of her guilt, was her marriage, on the 15th day of May following, with Bothwell. This indecent act excited particular indignation and abhorrence in the Scots; and in one month Bothwell was obliged to make a hasty flight to Norway, where he died in a miserable state, while Mary surrendered herself to the nobles, who conducted her to Edinburgh, amid the execrations of the soldiers and the multitude. The following evening she was conveyed, under a strong guard, to Lochlevin castle, and put under the care of William Douglas, the owner of it, to keep her as a prisoner. In this place she resigned the crown to her son, and appointed the earl of Murray regent.

A. D. 1567.—James VI., at the time an infant, was crowned at Stirling on the 29th day of July, 1567; and the earl of Murray assumed the regency, the good effects of which was quickly felt. He called a parliament, that confirmed the proceedings of the confederates. Here the letters which Mary had written to Bothwell were produced, which proved her to be accessory to the murder of the king. Yet George Douglas, a youth of eighteen, and brother to William Douglas, who had charge of Mary, was induced, by her affable and insinuating manner, to let her escape. On Sunday, the 2d of May, while his brother was at supper, he procured the keys which unlocked her apartment; and the queen and one of her maids were suffered to escape to a boat on the lake ready to receive her. She travelled all night, attended by Douglas, Seton, and Sir James Hamilton, and in two days reached Hamilton, where she raised a large army. The regent was at Glasgow, holding a court of justice, when he heard of Mary's flight; and her army, already strong, was only eight miles distant. In this dangerous exigency the superiority of Murray's genius appeared, and he was soon in a condition to take the field. Between the two armies, and on the road towards Dumbarton, lay Langside-hill. This the regent had the precaution to seize, and here he awaited the approach of the enemy. The encounter was fierce and desperate; at length the queen's army was obliged to give ground, and the rout immediately became universal. Mary witnessed the battle from a hill, and when she saw the army, her last hope, thrown into irretrievable confusion, she began her flight, and never slept till she reached the abbey of Dundrenan, in Galloway, full sixty Scots miles from the field of battle. From

thence she escaped in a fisherman's boat to Carlisle, with about twenty attendants. This event took place on the 16th of May, 1568. Elizabeth no sooner heard that Mary had arrived in England, than she resolved to detain her. With this view she instantly dispatched Lord Scrope, and Sir Francis Knollys, with letters full of kindness and condolence; but at the same time gave orders to prevent her escape. Mary was soon after conducted to Bolton, a seat of Lord Scrope's on the borders of Yorkshire. She was some time after, on account of a rebellion in her favour, removed to Coventry, a place of strength, which could not be taken without a regular siege. Weary of keeping such a prisoner as the Scotch queen, Elizabeth resolved to deliver her to the regent on certain conditions. But while this affair was in negotiation, the regent was murdered by Hamilton, of Bothwellhaugh, a person who owed his life to the regent's clemency. Thus ended the celebrated man, James Stuart, natural son of James the Fifth, by Lady Erskine, and natural brother of Mary, queen of Scots. He possessed personal intrepidity, military skill, and sagacity. He was a friend to learning, zealous for the reformed religion, and liberal to all whom he esteemed worthy of his confidence and friendship. He was long and affectionately remembered among the people by the name of the "good regent."

A. D. 1570.—The earl of Lenox, father of the unfortunate Darnley, the husband of Mary, was elected regent on the 13th of July, 1570; and in 1571 Dumbarton castle was attacked and taken by Captain Crawford; a service of great importance to the regent, being the only fortified place in the kingdom that held out for the queen. He was, however, surprised and murdered at Stirling, on the 3d of September, 1571. The earl of Mar was chosen regent by a majority of voices, on the 6th of September, but he retained the situation no longer than the 29th of October, 1572, when the earl of Morton was elected, the fourth who had held that dangerous office in the space of five years. James was now in the twelfth year of his age. Alexander Erskine had the chief direction of his education; and under him the celebrated Buchanan acted as preceptor, assisted by three others of the first ability. The nation groaned under the oppressions of Morton; and those about the king infused into him suspicions of his power and designs. The earls of Athol and Argyll were animated against him with implacable resentment; they beseeched the king to call a council of the nobles. James consented, and letters were issued for that purpose. This council met March 24, 1578, and advised the king to deprive Morton of the regency, and take the reins of government into his own hands. Morton immediately acquiesced; and a council of twelve peers were appointed to assist the king in the administration of affairs. Morton, however, gained the ascendancy in a month, and resumed his former authority. James early discovered that excessive attachment to favourites which accompanied him through life. Esme Stuart, second brother of the earl of Lenox, by birth a Frenchman, and Captain James Stuart, second son of Lord Ochiltree, were most in his confidence. Both these favourites laboured to undermine the authority of Morton; they accused him of the murder of the late king, and offered to verify this charge by legal evidence. Morton was confined first to his own house, and afterwards in the castle of Edinburgh; and he was soon after tried, condemned, and executed. What he confessed with regard to the crime is remarkable; it amounted to this, that Bothwell and Huntley were the perpetrators, and that the queen was the author of it. Morton was executed in 1581. The enterprise called the "raid of Ruthven" happened in the following year, when the king was seized in Ruthven castle by Gowrie, Boyd, Glamis, and Oliphant. This conspiracy, it is said, was countenanced by Elizabeth. James, however, in June, 1583, escaped out of the hands of the conspirators, after upwards of ten month's confinement.

In 1584, the partisans of Mary were busied in a conspiracy against Elizabeth, called the *Great Plot*, or *Designment*, which she no sooner discovered, than she resolved to take Mary out of the hands of the earl of Shrewsbury, who had had the care of her fifteen years, and appointed Sir Amias Paulet and Sir Drue Drury to be her keepers. Soon after this an act was passed, which rendered Mary accountable not only for her own actions, but for those of others, in consequence of which she might forfeit her right of succession, and even her life itself. From this period Mary was treated with increased rigour; almost all her servants were dismissed, she was removed to Tetbury, and, shortly after, was tried and executed.

The next event of importance connected with the court of Scotland, was the marriage of James to the princess Ann of Denmark, which took place November 24, 1589. As the prospect of succeeding to the crown of England drew near, James thought it prudent to endeavour to gain a party in that country. Edward Bruce, his ambassador at the court of Elizabeth, solicited her in the most earnest manner to recognize his title by some public deed; but a general and evasive answer was all that James could obtain. As no impression could be made on the queen, the ambassador was then ordered to sound the disposition of her subjects. In this he succeeded, and many of the highest rank gave him repeated assurances of their resolution to assert his master's right against every pretender.

During the summer of 1600, Scotland enjoyed an unusual tranquillity, when, in the midst of this security, the king's life was exposed to the utmost danger, by a conspiracy altogether unexpected, and almost inexplicable. The authors of it were John Ruthven, earl of Gowrie, and his brother Alexander, the sons of that earl who was beheaded in the year 1584. On the 4th of August, as the king, who during the hunting season resided at Falkland, was going out to his sport early in the morning, he was accosted by Mr. Alexander Ruthven, who, with an air of importance, told him, that the evening before he had met an unknown man, of a suspicious appearance, walking alone in a by-path, near his brother's house at Perth, and on searching him, had found under his cloak a pot filled with a great quantity of foreign gold; that he had immediately seized both him and his treasure, and, without communicating the matter to any person, had kept him confined and bound in a solitary house, and that he thought it his duty to impart such a singular event first of all to his majesty. James immediately suspected this person to be a seminary priest supplied with foreign gold, in order to excite new commotions in the kingdom, and resolved to empower the magistrates of Perth to call the person before them, and inquire into all the circumstances of the story. Ruthven violently opposed this resolution, and, with many arguments, induced the king to ride directly to Perth, and to examine the matter in person. When within a mile of the town, Ruthven rode forward to inform his brother of the king's arrival, with about twenty attendants. No preparations were made for his entertainment; although the earl appeared pensive and embarrassed, he took great pains to atone, by his courtesy, for the common fare with which he treated his guest. As soon as the king's repast was over, his attendants were conducted to dinner in another room. Ruthven told him now was the time to go to the chamber where the unknown person was kept; and, conducting the king up a staircase, and then through several apartments, the doors of which he locked behind him, led him at last to a small study, in which stood a man clad in armour, with a sword and a dagger by his side. The king, who expected to have found one disarmed and bound, started at the sight. Ruthven, snatching the dagger from the girdle of the man in armour, and holding it to the king's breast, "Remember," said he, "how unjustly my father suffered by your command. You are now my prisoner; submit to my disposal without resistance or outcry, or this dagger shall instantly revenge his blood."

James expostulated with Ruthven, entreated, and flattered him. Words had no effect. Ruthven told him that he must die, and attempted to bind his hands. James, unarmed as he was, scorned to submit to that indignity, and, losing with the assassin, a fierce struggle ensued, the man in armour standing motionless all the while, and the king dragging Ruthven towards a window which was open. The king then, with a voice of terror, loudly exclaimed, "Treason! treason! help! I am murdered!" His attendants heard and knew his voice, and saw at the window a hand which grasped the king's neck with violence. They flew to his assistance, and Sir John Ramsay first entering the apartment, rushed upon Ruthven, who was still struggling with his royal master, struck him twice with his dagger, and thrust him towards the stairs, where Sir Thomas Erskine and Sir Hugh Herries met and killed him. Gowrie now rushed into the room, with a sword in each hand, followed by seven of his attendants well armed, and, with a loud voice, threatened them all with instant death. Notwithstanding the inequality of numbers, they encountered the earl, and Sir John Ramsay pierced Gowrie to the heart, who fell without uttering a word. His followers having received several wounds, immediately fled. The parliament lost no time in proceeding against the conspirators. The dead bodies of the two brothers were produced there according to law, an indictment for high treason was preferred against them, witnesses were examined, and, by an unanimous sentence, the punishment due to traitors was inflicted on their dead bodies. The parliament also enacted that the surname of Ruthven should be abolished.

Queen Elizabeth died on the 24th of March, 1604, in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign. A short time previous to her death, she declared to Cecil and the lord-admiral, "that her cousin, the king of Scots, should be her successor." This she confirmed on her death-bed. As soon as she had breathed her last, the lords of the council proclaimed James king of England. All the intrigues carried on by foreigners in favour of the infanta, all the cabals formed within the kingdom to support the title of Lady Arabella Stuart and the earl of Hertford disappeared in a moment. Sir Charles Percy, brother to the earl of Northumberland, and Thomas Somerset, son of the earl of Worcester, were dispatched to Scotland with a letter to James, signed by all the peers and privy councillors then in London, informing him of Elizabeth's decease, and of his accession to the throne. He prepared to set out for London, and appointed the queen to follow him within a few weeks.

CHAPTER IV.

THE ACCESSION OF JAMES THE SIXTH OF SCOTLAND, AND THE FIRST OF ENGLAND

On the 5th of April James began his journey with a splendid train, and entering London on the 7th of May, took peaceable possession of the throne of England. But from this period to the legislative union of the kingdoms, Scotland declined not only in importance but in wealth. Instead of enjoying any advantages by the alliance, it was considered rather as an appendage of England than an important part of Great Britain, and it was consequently neglected.

We shall in this place introduce the reflections of that able historian, Dr. Robertson, on the alteration produced in the political and social state of Scotland by this event. "The Scots," he says, "dazzled with the glory of giving a sovereign to their powerful enemy, relying on the partiality of their native prince, and in full expectation of sharing liberally in the wealth and honours which he now would be able to bestow, at-

tended little to the most obvious consequences of that great event, and rejoiced at his accession to the throne of England, as if it had been no less beneficial to the kingdom than honourable to the king. By his accession, James acquired such an immense increase of wealth, power, and splendour, that the nobles, astonished and intimidated, thought it vain to struggle for privileges which they were now unable to defend. Nor was it from fear alone they submitted to the yoke; James, partial to his countrymen, and willing that they should partake in his good fortune, loaded them with riches and honours; and the hope of his favour concurred with the dread of his power, in taming their fierce and independent spirits. The will of the prince became the supreme law in Scotland, and the nobles strove, with emulation, who should most implicitly obey commands which they had formerly been accustomed to contemn. Satisfied with having subjected the nobles to the crown, the king left them in full possession of their ancient jurisdiction over their own vassals. The extensive rights vested in a feudal chief, became in their hands dreadful instruments of oppression, and the military ideas on which these rights were founded, being gradually lost or disregarded, nothing remained to correct or to mitigate the rigour with which they were exercised. The nobles exhausting their fortunes by the expense of frequent attendance upon the English court, and by attempts to imitate the manners and luxury of their more wealthy neighbours, multiplied exactions upon the people, who durst hardly utter complaints which they knew would never reach the ear of their sovereign, nor move him to grant them any redress. From the union of the crowns to the revolution in 1688, Scotland was placed in a political situation of all others the most singular and unhappy; subjected at once to the absolute will of a monarch, and to the oppressive jurisdiction of an aristocracy, it suffered all the miseries peculiar to both these forms of government. Its kings were despotic, its nobles were slaves and tyrants, and the people groaned under the rigorous domination of both."

As the nobles were deprived of power, the people acquired liberty. Exempted from burdens to which they were formerly subject, screened from oppression, to which they had long been exposed, and adopted into a constitution whose genius and laws were more liberal than their own, they extended their commerce, refined their manners, made improvements in the elegancies of life, and cultivated the arts and sciences. Since the union, the commons, anciently neglected by their kings, and seldom courted by the nobles, have emerged into dignity, and, being admitted to a participation of all the privileges which the English had purchased at the expense of so much blood, must now be deemed a body not less considerable in the one kingdom than in the other. The church felt the effects of the power which the king acquired by his accession, and its revolutions are worthy of notice. James, delighted with the splendour and authority which the English bishops enjoyed, and eager to effect a union in the ecclesiastical policy, which he had, in vain, attempted in the civil government of the two kingdoms, resolved to bring both churches to an exact conformity with each other. Three Scotchmen were consecrated bishops at London. From them their brethren were commanded to receive orders. Ceremonies unknown in Scotland were imposed, and though the clergy, less obsequious than the nobles, boldly opposed these innovations, James, long practised and well skilled in the arts of managing them, obtained at length their compliance. But Charles I., a superstitious prince, unacquainted with the genius of the Scots, imprudent and precipitant in all the measures he pursued in that kingdom, pressing too eagerly the reception of the English liturgy, and indiscreetly attempting a resumption of church lands, kindled the flames of civil war; and the people being left at liberty to indulge their own wishes, the episcopal church was overturned, and the presbyterian government and discipline

were re-established with new vigour. Together with monarchy, episcopacy was restored in Scotland. A form of government so odious to the people, required force to uphold it, and though not only the whole rigour of authority, but all the barbarity of persecution, were employed in its support, the aversion of the nation was insurmountable, and it subsisted with difficulty. At the revolution, the inclinations of the people were thought worthy the attention of the legislature, the presbyterian government was again established, and, being ratified by the union, is still maintained in the kingdom.

Nor did the influence of the accession extend to the civil and ecclesiastical constitutions alone; the genius of the nation, its taste and spirit, things of a nature still more delicate, were sensibly affected by that event. When learning revived in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, all the modern languages were in a state extremely barbarous, devoid of elegance, of vigour, and even of perspicuity. No author thought of writing in language so ill adapted to express and embellish his sentiments, or of erecting a work for immortality with such rude and perishable materials. As the spirit which prevailed at that time did not owe its rise to any original effort of the human mind, but was excited chiefly by admiration of the ancients, which began then to be studied in every part of Europe, their compositions were deemed not only the standards of taste and of sentiment, but of style, and even the languages in which they wrote were thought to be peculiar, and almost consecrated to learning and the muses. Not only the manner of the ancients was imitated, but their language was adopted, and, extravagant as the attempt may appear to write in a dead tongue, in which men were not accustomed to think, and which they could not speak, or even pronounce, the success of it was astonishing. As they formed their style upon the purest models, and were uninfected with those barbarisms which the inaccuracy of familiar conversation, the affectation of courts, intercourse with strangers, and a thousand other causes introduced into living languages, many moderns have attained to a degree of eloquence in their Latin compositions which the Romans themselves scarce possessed beyond the limits of the Augustan age. While this was almost the only species of composition, and all authors, by using one common language, could be brought to a nearer comparison, the Scottish writers were not inferior to those of any other nation. The happy genius of Buchanan, equally formed to excel in prose and in verse, more various, more original, and more elegant than that of almost any other modern who writes in Latin, reflects, with regard to this particular, the greatest lustre on his country.

But the labour attending the study of a dead tongue was irksome; the unequal return for their industry which authors met with, who could be read and admired only within the narrow circle of the learned, was mortifying; and men, instead of wasting half their lives in learning the language of the Romans, began to refine and to polish their own. The modern tongues were found to be susceptible of beauties and graces which, if not equal to those of the ancient ones, were at least more attainable. The Italians having first set the example, Latin was no longer used in works of taste, but was confined to books of science; and the politer nations have banished it even from these. The Scots, we may presume, would have had no cause to regret this change in the public taste, and would still have been able to maintain some equality with other nations, in their pursuit of literary honour. The English and Scottish languages, derived from the same sources, were at the end of the sixteenth century in a state nearly similar, differing from one another somewhat in orthography, though not only the words, but the idioms, were much the same. The letters of several Scottish statesmen of that age were not inferior in elegance, or in purity, to those of the English ministers with whom they

corresponded. James himself was master of a style far from contemptible, and by his example and encouragement the Scottish language might have kept pace with the English in refinement. Scotland *might* have had a series of authors in its own, as well as in the Latin language to boast of; and the improvements in taste, in the arts, and in the sciences, which spread over the other polished nations of Europe, would not have been unknown there.

During the whole of the seventeenth century, the English were gradually refining their language and their taste; in Scotland the former was much debased, and the latter almost entirely lost. In the beginning of that period, both nations were emerging out of barbarity; but the distance between them, which was then inconsiderable, became, before the end of it, immense. Even after science had once dawned upon them, the Scots seemed to sink back into ignorance and obscurity, and active and intelligent as they naturally were, they continued, while other nations were eager in the pursuit of fame and knowledge, in a state of langour. This, however, must be imputed to the unhappiness of their political situation, not to any defect of genius; for no sooner was the one removed in any degree, than the other began to display itself. The act abolishing the power of the lords of the articles, and other salutary laws passed at the revolution, having introduced freedom of debate into the Scottish parliament, eloquence, with all the arts that accompany or perfect it, became immediate objects of attention; and the example of Fletcher of Salton is alone sufficient to show that the Scots were still capable of general sentiments, and, notwithstanding some peculiar idioms, were able to express themselves with energy and with elegance.

At length, the union having incorporated the two nations, and rendered them one people, the distinctions which subsisted for many ages gradually wore away; the same manners prevailed in both parts of the island; the same authors were read and admired; the same entertainments were frequented by the elegant and polite; and the same standard of taste and of purity in language was established. The Scots, after being placed, during a whole century, in a situation no less fatal to the liberty than to the taste and genius of the nation, were at once put in possession of privileges more valuable than those which their ancestors had formerly enjoyed; and every obstruction that had retarded their pursuit, or prevented their acquisition of literary fame, was wholly removed. There were seven Scottish parliaments called after the accession of James, wherein he presided by a commissioner. An act was was passed in 1606 for the restoration of the estate of bishops; which was followed by a great variety of laws for giving proper effect to the general principle; and there were also many laws enacted for promoting domestic economy. After governing Scotland with considerable success during his occupation of the throne of England, he died on the 27th of March, 1625, and was succeeded by his son, Charles I., then in the 25th year of his age.

CHAPTER V.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF CHARLES I. TO THE DEATH OF WILLIAM III.

During the first ten years of Charles' reign nothing occurred in Scotland calculated to disturb the serenity of his rule; but this calm was succeeded by frequent broils and contentions, arising from many causes, but chiefly originating in ecclesiastical matters. Among many laws of a salutary tendency, they passed an act, reserving to the crown those lands which the baronage had wrested from the church; the clergy were thus benefitted, the people were relieved, but the barons were offended.

Charles, who was attached to episcopacy from sincere religious convictions, as well as from views of political expediency, formed the scheme of assimilating in all respects the churches in England and Scotland. With this view he determined to introduce a liturgy, which in Scotland had never been regularly used; and he insisted upon the reception of a set of canons abolishing the control over ecclesiastical measures which the inferior church judicatories had been permitted to exercise. The violence with which all this was resisted was carried to the most extravagant pitch, the clergy were insulted, and episcopacy was again contemplated as the engine of popery and despotism. The dissensions which soon arose in England cherished this state of mind; the discontented in Scotland made common cause with the disaffected in the southern part of the island; they bound themselves by the extraordinary deed which they entitled "the solemn league and covenant," to exterminate prelacy as a corruption of the gospel; and they took an active part in those violent scenes which ended in the death of Charles and the erection of the commonwealth. To describe the battles which took place between royalists and roundheads, or to make comments on the hypocrisy and faithlessness of the times, would be to repeat that which has already found a place in this volume, and which must remain the foulest blot in the annals of England. We shall therefore merely observe, that after the execution of Charles I., in 1648, the Scots proclaimed his son king, under the title of Charles II.; and that some months after his defeat at Worcester, Scotland was incorporated into one commonwealth with England.

On the restoration of Charles II., the Scottish parliament assembled, under the earl of Middleton, the king's commissioner, on the 1st of January, 1661. He declared the king's resolution to maintain the true reformed protestant religion, as it had been established during the reigns of his father and grandfather; intimating, however, that he would restore the episcopal government, though he allowed, meanwhile, the administration of sessions, presbyteries, and synods. This endeavour to establish episcopacy was violently opposed, and led to the most cruel persecution of the presbyterians, which lasted with more or less severity, during the whole of the reign. Numbers were executed; others were fined, imprisoned, and tortured; and whole tracts of the country were placed under a military despotism of the worst description. Driven to desperation, the presbyterian party had several times recourse to arms, and, although in some cases successful, they were finally defeated and scattered at Bothwell-bridge.

A. D. 1685.—On ascending the throne, James II. professed his intention to support the government, in church and state, as by law established; yet his predilection for the catholic religion was evident in his very first acts. Compliant as the Scottish parliament was in what related to their civil liberties, they were resolved to adhere to their religious principles. On this point, indeed, the people of Scotland were unanimous, and when they heard of the landing of the prince of Orange, and read his declaration in favour of liberty and in support of law, they hailed his advent with joy. The nobles began to intrigue, the populace, in their zeal, broke out into insurrection against the catholics at Edinburgh, and all classes looked up to the prince of Orange as the deliverer of the two nations from popish dominion. William consulted several of the Scottish nobles, clergy, and gentry, regarding the state of their country, and issued circular letters, summoning a convention at Edinburgh, on the 22d of March, 1689. When they met they decided that king James, by his abuse of power, had forfeited the rights to the crown, and immediately declared the prince and princess of Orange to be king and queen of Scotland. This act, which involved such mighty consequences, was attended by a declaration of their wrongs and rights. Former insurrections, though accompanied by

many mischiefs, passed away without any advantage to the nation. Though the revolution of 1689 brought with it a civil war, it was the means of strengthening the constitution, of preserving public liberty, and securing private rights. The presbyterian church was now erected on the ruins of episcopacy, the prerogative was restrained to its proper functions, and many salutary laws for promoting domestic economy were enacted.

Although the great bulk of the people were in favour of the revolution, it must not be forgotten there was a considerable party that remained attached to the exiled family of the Stuarts; and it was found to be no easy matter to reconcile the Highlanders to the expulsion of their ancient race of monarchs. Many of them were in open state of rebellion. However, in August, 1692, a proclamation of indemnity had been passed to such insurgents as would take the oath of allegiance to the new government on or before the last day of December. The last man to submit was Macdonald of Glencoe, and he, owing to the snows and other interruptions which he met with on the road, did not reach Inverary, the county town, in time, and the benefit of the indemnity was therefore strictly forfeited. William was informed, and fully believed that Macdonald of Glencoe was the chief obstacle to the pacification of the Highlands, and a warrant of military execution was procured from him against the unfortunate chief and his whole tribe. A detachment of soldiers, one hundred and twenty in number, commanded by Captain Campbell, was ordered on the 1st of February, to repair to Glencoe, where they were quartered for a fortnight among the inhabitants of that sequestered vale. On the evening of the 13th orders arrived to attack the Macdonalds while asleep at midnight, and not to suffer a man to escape their swords; an order which the soldiers obeyed with ruthless barbarity. Thirty-eight persons, among whom were Glencoe and his wife, thus mercilessly perished; the rest, alarmed by the report of the musketry, escaped to the hills, and were only preserved from destruction by a tempest that added to the horrors of the night. The carnage was succeeded by rapine and desolation; the houses were burned to the ground, and women and children, stripped naked, were left to die of cold and hunger. This horrible massacre excited universal execration, and, naturally enough, rendered the government of William odious to the Highlanders.

CHAPTER VI.

UNION OF THE TWO KINGDOMS.

William III. died in 1702, by which the crowns of the two nations, devolved on Anne, who assured the parliament that she would support the government as then established. But they refused to tolerate episcopacy, and they declined to concur in adopting the protestant succession for the crown; nay, they issued a declaration which intimated a purpose, in case of the demise of the crown, to appoint a different sovereign from whomsoever might be the English king. The English statesmen, forseeing what this was likely to produce, recommended the appointment of commissioners to treat of a union between the two kingdoms. Instead of regarding it as an identification of the interest of both kingdoms, the people generally considered it as a total surrender of their independence into the hands of a powerful rival. Addresses against it were presented from all quarters, and in several places the populace rose in arms, and formed themselves into regiments of horse and foot in order to oppose the union. Nor were the commercial part of the community, who were supposed to benefit largely by it, satisfied by its terms. Notwithstanding every opposition,

however, the treaty of union was ratified by both parliaments, and on the 1st of May, 1707, the legislative union of England and Scotland was ratified.

For several years the union was unproductive of those advantages which were at first expected; no new manufactories were attracted to Scotland, and commerce grew more languid than before. But by a considerable assimilation of the laws to those of England, the courts of justice were better regulated, and legal redress more easily obtained, while the barbarous practice of subjecting prisoners to the torture was abolished. It was stipulated by the treaty that no alterations should be made in the church of Scotland; that the commercial laws and customs should be the same in all parts of the united kingdom; that the Scotch royal burghs should retain all their ancient privileges; and that no person should be deprived of those hereditary rights and offices which they had enjoyed by the laws of Scotland. Looking at these and other conditions of the union, it is certain that if the Scotch would abandon prejudices that ought to be obsolete, and resolve to profit by the connexion, they would soon have ample opportunity of so doing; while, on the part of England, it was evident that the zealous co-operation of her northern neighbour in times of war must tend to the security of the whole island, and in peace contribute to its commercial importance. Queen Anne died on the 1st of August, 1714, and, under the act of settlement, the united crown was transferred to George I.

We conceive it to be unnecessary to carry the general narrative beyond this period; the affairs of Scotland being henceforth detailed, in common with those of England, in the history of that country. But, in concluding this sketch, it appears requisite to give a brief account of the peculiarities which attach to matters ecclesiastical. In 1560, the Roman catholic religion was abolished, and the reformation was sanctioned by act of parliament; the distinguishing tenets of the Scotch church having been first embodied in the formulary of faith attributed to John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, established at Geneva. General assemblies at that time began, and continued to meet twice every year, for the space of twenty years; after which they were annual. From 1572 to 1592, a sort of episcopacy prevailed in the church, while the ecclesiastical form of government was presbyterian. Meantime, the dignitaries of the church and the nobility monopolized the revenues of the church, and left the reformed clergy in a state of indigence. After much deliberation, the protestant leaders resolved to provide a state-maintenance for their teachers, and the following plan was adopted. Two-thirds of all ecclesiastical benefices were reserved to the present possessor, and to the crown the remainder was annexed, out of which a competent subsistence was to be assigned to the protestant clergy. But the revenue thus appropriated, instead of being duly applied, was diverted into other channels. In 1587, all the unalienated church lands were annexed to the crown; and the tithes alone were reserved for the support of the clergy. Bishops continued till 1592, when presbyterian government was established by an act of parliament, and a division was made of the church into synods and presbyteries. But the king, desirous of having the power of the bishops restored, as a balance to the nobles in parliament, prevailed on a majority of the clergy, in 1597 and 1598, to agree that some ministers should represent the church in parliament, and that there should be constant moderators in presbyteries. By an act of parliament in 1606, the temporalities of bishops were restored, and they were allowed a seat in parliament; and thus the presbyterian government was overturned. But episcopacy at length grew so obnoxious to the people, that in 1689, prelacy was declared, by a convention of estates, to be a national grievance, which ought to be abolished; and in the following year the presbyterian

government was restored and established by parliament; and the general assembly met, after it had been discontinued from the year 652. Hitherto the provision for the maintenance of the clergy was inadequate, but their stipends were now raised and regulated by the price of grain.

The presbyterian church government afterwards secured in the treaty of union, is founded on a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters or pastors, and modelled after the Calvinistic plan, which Knox recommended to his countrymen. This form of government excludes all pre-eminence of order, all ministers being held equal in rank and power. In matters relating to discipline a pastor is asisted by elders, who ought to be selected from among the most intelligent and consistent of the parishioners, but have no right to teach or dispense the sacraments. Their proper office is to watch over the morals of the people, and to catechise and visit the sick. They likewise discharge the office of deacons by managing the funds for the maintenance of the poor within their districts. The elders and ministers compose what is called a *kirk* or *church*-session, the lowest ecclesiastical judicature in Scotland. When a parishioner is convicted of immoral conduct, the church-session inflicts some ecclesiastical censure. If a person considers himself aggrieved, he may appeal to the presbytery, which is the next superior court. The ministers of an indefinite number of contiguous parishes, with one ruling elder chosen half-yearly, out of every church-session, constitute what is called a *presbytery*, which has cognizance of all ecclesiastical matters within its bounds. *Synods* are composed of several presbyteries, and of a ruling elder from every church-session within their bounds. They review the proceedings of presbyteries, and judge in references, complaints, and appeals from the inferior court. But their decisions and acts are reversible by the *general assembly*, which is the highest ecclesiastical court, and from which there is no appeal.

THE HISTORY OF FRANCE.

FRANCE, which in the time of the Romans was called Gaul, or Gallia, extended from the Pyrenees to the Rhine, and on the side of Italy, beyond the Alps to the Adriatic, that which was situated on the Italian side of the Alps being named Cisalpine Gaul, and that beyond the Alps, Transalpine Gaul. The part of Transalpine Gaul nearest Upper Italy, and stretching along the Mediterranean towards the Pyrenees, was conquered by Fabius. As this was the first part that was converted into a Roman province, it was called, by way of eminence, the *Provincia* (afterwards changed into Provence.) It was bounded by the Alps, the Cevennes, and the Rhone. Cæsar, who conquered Transalpine Gaul at a later period, found it divided into three parts: 1. Aquitania, extending from the Pyrenees to the Garonne, chiefly occupied by Iberian tribes; 2. Gallia Celtica, from the Garonne to the Seine and Marne; 3. Gallia Belgica, in the north, extending to the Rhine. But subsequently, by the command of Augustus, a very different and much more minute division of the country took place, which, however, it is not here necessary to describe.

The Gauls were the chief branch of the great original stock of Celts, and as they called themselves Gael, the name Gaul probably thus took its rise. A great resemblance appears to have existed among all the Celts, and although they were divided into numerous tribes, there were but few branches that were perceptibly different from each other. The period of their earliest migrations is, however, too remote for history, and inapplicable to our present object. Cæsar represents all the Gallic tribes as warlike, going always armed, and ready on all occasions to decide their differences by the sword; as a people of great levity, and little inclined to idleness, but hospitable, generous, confiding, and sincere. The Druids, their priests, who were the sole depositaries of learning among them, were indebted to the credulity of the people for the deference they paid to them. These priests ruled the people by the terror of their anathemas; they were exempt from all tribute to the state, and abounded in riches. They had also bards or poets, who composed war-songs to animate the combatants, and to perpetuate the memory of their heroes. The elders, or senators of their towns, together with the military and their chiefs, formed the nobility; these, in conjunction with the priests, possessed the riches and the power; vassalage and misery were the portion of the commonalty.

The discipline of the Romans, and the genius and good fortune of Cæsar, triumphed in ten years over the valour of the Gauls. Colonies had commenced the work of subjugation, and conquest completed it; Gaul became a Roman province. The municipal regulations, and the agriculture of the Romans, soon rendered the country flourishing, but despotism afterwards despoiled it. This state of things continued for four centuries, when the people were reduced to the lowest depths of misery, impoverished by the proconsuls, the prey of factions, and alternately passing from insurrection to slavery, under tyrants, who were perpetually changing. But the "incursions of the barbarians" on the Roman territory, had by this time greatly humbled the former mistress of the world. The civilization, arts, and literature of the Romans were on the decline; the empire, divided and weakened, was falling into ruin, discipline was relaxed, and the glory of the Roman name faded before the barbaric hosts that issued from the north and overran the five provinces which had flourished under the administration of a Trajan and an Antonine.

Four hundred years after the Roman conquests, and under the reign of the weak Honorious, a people known by the name of Franks, from Franconia in Germany, abandoned their morasses and their woods, in search of a better country. Under the direction of their king Pharamond, they passed the Rhine, and entered Gaul, but carried their arms no further than Belgic Gaul, that part of modern France till lately called the Netherlands. Pharamond died soon after he had effected the settlement. The long lists of kings which followed Pharamond, are divided into three races. The *first* is called the MEROVINGIAN, from Merovius, the third king of the Franks; it produced twenty-one kings to France, from the year 448 to the year 751, and ended with Childeric III., surnamed the Foolish. The *second* race began with Pepin, mayor of the palace, who did not take upon himself the title of king; nor did his son, the celebrated Charles Martel. Pepin the Short, his son, deprived Childeric III. of his crown. This race, called the CARLOVINGIAN, gave thirteen kings to France. It acquired much glory under Charlemagne, but became very weak under his successors, and terminated with Louis V., called the Sluggard, after having possessed the throne 235 years, from 752 to 987. The *third* race, called the CAPETINE, commenced with Hugh Capet, and gave to France thirty-three kings, who reigned 806 years, and finished with Louis XVI., who was beheaded January, 1793. France then became a republic, which lasted until May, 1804, when it was transformed into an empire by Napoleon Bonaparte,

who had risen on the ruins of the republic, and had been dictator of France under the appellation of chief consul. The imperial title, however, lasted but ten years, Napoleon having been driven from his usurped throne, and Louis XVIII. restored to the throne of his ancestors.

In tracing the obscure records of the early periods, we behold alternately wars and alliances among the Romans and Franks, the Visigoths, and other barbarians; ambitious generals raised to power by the imperial court, but quickly overcoming their feeble masters, and calling in the aid of the barbarous tribes to serve the ever-varying purposes of their personal ambition. The western empire was then declining; the Saxons seized upon Anjou and Maine; the Burgundians occupied the country near the Seine; the Goths and Visigoths extended their dominions as far as the Loire; the Franks and the Allmanns, branches of the different hordes which issued from Germany, contended for the possession of the north; while the Romans or Gauls kept the other part of the country. On the conquest of Gaul by the Franks, the lands were distributed among their officers; and these, with the clergy, formed the first great councils or parliaments. Thus the government was evidently a kind of mixed monarchy, in which nothing of moment was transacted without the grand council of the nation, consisting of the principal officers, who held their lands by military tenures. It appears, indeed, that when Gaul became the possession of northern invaders, it did not acquire that degree of freedom to its constitution which Britain received, about the same time, from conquerors who sprung from the same common stock.

The Merovingian Dynasty, or First Race.

A. D. 420.—Pharamond, the first king of the Franks, was succeeded by Clodio, who extended the bounds of his kingdom. Merovius secured the acquisitions of his predecessor, and Childeric, his son, pushed his conquests to the banks of the river Seine. Clovis, his son, and the inheritor of his ambition, aggrandized his kingdom, and so far extended his power, that he is ranked as the founder of the French monarchy. This prince, the first of the Frank kings who had embraced Christianity, brought almost all the Gauls under his government. He parted his dominions, before he died, between his children. Clovis owed his conversion to Christianity from his marriage with a Christian princess of Spain, and his example was followed by most of the Franks, who until that time had been pagans. He was baptized with great splendour in the cathedral at Rheims, on which occasion the king granted freedom to a number of slaves, and received the title of "Most Christian King," which has ever since been retained by the monarchs of France. Charles I., the youngest and most barbarous of the sons of Clovis, and the last survivor of them, at the time of his death possessed the whole of France; his dominion extended from the banks of the Elbe to the sea of Aquitaine, in the Atlantic ocean, and from the Scheldt to the sources of the Loire. At his death he divided it among his four sons. The kingdom was soon after rendered miserable, from the jealousy of two ambitious women, the queens Fredigonde and Brunehaut. The former was a prodigy of boldness, of wickedness, and genius, and gained several battles in person; the other is described as a woman who, under the exterior graces of beauty, practised the worst of vices, and expiated her crimes by a shocking death.

A. D. 613.—Clotaire II., the worthy son of Fredigonde, became sole monarch of France. Under this prince the *mayors of the palace* began to have considerable power, which increased under Dagobert I., and became excessive under Clovis II. and his successors. We see in the first race little more than the shadows of kings, while their ministers governed and tyrannized over the people. Pepin Heristal, mayor of the palace to Childeric the Foolish, seized the whole authority. His son, Charles

Martel, a bold and enterprising warrior and great politician, with more ambition even than his father, increased his power by his brilliant achievements, and governed France under the title of duke.

The Carlovingian Dynasty, or Second Race.

As mayor of the palace, Charles Martel had long exercised the sovereign power in the name of Childeric, a weak and indolent prince. The Saracens, who had made themselves masters of the south of France, penetrating into the heart of the kingdom, were at length entirely defeated by him, in one great battle, fought between Tours and Poitiers, which lasted seven days, and in which 300,000 Moslems were slain. In consequence of this splendid victory, he was considered the champion of Christendom, and such was his popularity, that with the consent of the people he assumed the dominion of France; for, having a victorious army at his command, he not only deposed the king, but rendered himself an absolute prince, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their share in the government.

A. D. 752.—His son Pepin succeeded him on the throne, but restored the privileges of the nobility and clergy, on their agreeing to exclude the former race of kings. He also divided the provinces among his principal nobility, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, till at length, assuming a kind of independency, they only acknowledged the king as their head, and this gave rise to the numerous principalities, and their several parliaments, every province retaining the same form of government that had been exercised in the whole; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the clergy.

A. D. 768.—Charles, his son, called Charlemagne, was valiant, wise, and victorious. He conquered Italy, Germany, and part of Spain, and was crowned emperor of the Romans (the western empire), by Pope Leo III. He established a regular and popular government, compiled a code of laws, favoured the arts and sciences, and died with the glory of being beloved by his subjects, and feared by his enemies. Louis I., le Debonnaire, the only surviving son of Charlemagne, began his reign with the most cruel executions. His children revolted against him, he was compelled to do public penance, and declared to have forfeited the imperial dignity. The Normans renewed their incursions and their ravages under Charles the Bald, besieged Paris in the reign of Charles the Gross, and at length obtained a fixed establishment under Charles the Simple. The royal authority became weakened, while the power of the lords considerably augmented; the imperial dignity was already lost to the house of Charlemagne, and it was soon followed by the loss of the crown of France.

First Branch.—*The Capetine Dynasty, or Third Race.*

A. D. 987.—After the death of Louis V., the last of the Carlovingian race, Hugh Capet usurped the throne. This Hugh was the grandson of Robert, whom the French had elected king in the room of Charles the Simple. His father had rendered himself much respected by the nation, in defending Paris against the attacks of the barbarians. Hugh Capet, inheriting the valour of his ancestors, saved France under Lothaire. This family possessed the duchies of Paris and of Orleans; and these two cities, by their situation on the Loire and the Seine, were the strongest bulwarks of the monarchy against the Normans. Hugh associated his son Robert in the kingdom. Robert, as pusillanimous as his father was courageous, reunited the duchy of Burgundy to the crown, but his weakness tarnished his virtues.

A. D. 1031.—Henry I., who had the misfortune to see his own mother armed against him, to deprive him of his crown and give it to his brother,

with the assistance of the duke of Normandy, forced his brother to content himself with Burgundy, which this branch of the royal family possessed 300 years. At this period the tyranny of feudalism was at its height. Overwhelmed with services, toils, and subsidies of all sorts, imposed by the military or the ecclesiastics, the people fought only to rivet their chains more firmly. Those who lived in the country were called villeins; those of the cities and towns, bourgeois. Neither of them could labour but for the advantage of their lords, who often quartered their military retainers upon them. Among themselves the lords were equally ferocious; their declarations of war extended to relations and allies, and the quarrel of a single family was sufficient to involve a whole community in the fiercest war for years together. Thus France became one vast field of blood, and perpetual carnage at length wearied even ferocity itself.

A. D. 1060.—The long reign of Philip I., son of Henry I., is an epoch of remarkable events. William, duke of Normandy, crossed the channel, and effected the conquest of England in 1066, where he established his own rigorous modification of the feudal regime, and had also the firmness to refuse homage to the pope. A jest of the king of France on the obesity of William kindled a war, from which may be dated a long continued enmity between France and England.

A. D. 1108.—Philip was succeeded by his son, Louis the Gross. The first years of his reign were disturbed by insurrections of his lords in different parts of the kingdom, and these insurrections were the more troublesome, as they were secretly fomented by the English king, that by weakening the power of France his duchy of Normandy might be the more secure. These wars between the two countries were often interrupted by treaties, but as often re-lighted by national ambition and antipathy. Louis the Young, unfortunate in the crusades, at his return repudiated his wife, in whose right he inherited Guienne and Poictou. He died in 1180, and was succeeded by his son, Philip II., surnamed the August. Philip II. defeated John, king of England, and wrested from him Normandy, Maine, and Anjou. He then went on the crusade with Richard Cœur-de-Lion, to rescue Jerusalem from the Saracens. The two kings succeeded only in taking Acre, and Philip, on his return, treacherously invaded Normandy during Richard's absence.

A. D. 1223.—Philip Augustus was succeeded by his son, Louis VIII., surnamed the Lion. His short reign was not marked by any great events, but he distinguished it by enfranchising a great number of serfs or villeins. He signalized his courage against the English, and died of a contagious distemper, at the age of thirty-nine years.

A. D. 1226.—Louis IX., surnamed for his piety, Saint Louis, having defeated the king of England and many of the grand vassals of France, at Tailleburg, conducted an army to Palestine, took Damietta in Egypt, and distinguished himself at Massous, where he was taken prisoner. He was a friend to the indigent, and a zealous advocate for the Christian religion. He died before Tunis, where he had gone upon a second crusade against the infidels. Philip III., surnamed the Bold, his son, was proclaimed king by the army; he was liberal, benevolent, and just, but displayed no striking abilities. He was succeeded by his son, Philip the Fair.

A. D. 1285.—Philip IV., surnamed le Bel, or the Fair, celebrated for his disputes with Edward I. of England, and Pope Boniface VIII., abolished the order of the Templars, reduced the Flemings, and made the seat of the parliament permanent in Paris. He was of a lively disposition, but cruel and unfeeling, and employed ministers who possessed his defects, without his good qualities. In his reign, the states-general, or representatives of the three estates of the kingdom, the nobility, clergy, and commonalty, were first assembled. Philip IV. was succeeded by his son, Louis X., during whose reign, which was short, the people were burdened

with imposts. The two brothers of Louis, Philip the Long and Charles IV., followed successively. Philip signalized himself by a number of wise regulations in the courts of justice. Charles followed his brother's steps in this particular, but the state was loaded with debts and badly governed.

SECOND BRANCH.—*House of Valois.*

A. D. 1328.—Queen Jane, wife of Charles IV., being delivered of a posthumous daughter, the house of Valois mounted the throne, the states of France having decreed females to be incapable of inheriting the crown of France. This is called the *Salic* law, from its having been the practice of a tribe of Franks, called Salians, to exclude females from all inheritance to landed property. Philip IV., soon after his succession, defeated the Flemings, but was defeated by the English in a sea-fight near Sluys, also at Cressy and Calais. In this reign Dauphiny was annexed to the crown of France.

A. D. 1350.—John, a brave prince, but without genius or political discernment, succeeded Philip. He continued to war against England, but was defeated and taken prisoner at the battle of Poitiers. The kingdom became the theatre of factions and carnage, and was drained of its valuables to ransom the king. He had stipulated for the cession of one third of the kingdom, and 3,000,000 of gold crowns. Not being able to raise this enormous sum, John voluntarily returned to London, and died soon after, A. D. 1364. His son, Charles, surnamed the Wise, succeeded him. Charles V., seconded by De Guesclin, constable of France, avenged the honour of the nation, and re-established order in the state. Everything wore a new face under this king, who was wise, laborious, and economical; a friend to the arts, to letters, and to virtue.

A. D. 1380.—Charles VI. succeeded to the crown, and France, under his government, fell into great disorder. This prince having lost his reason, and recovering it at intervals, nothing decisive could be effected. The English king, Henry V., entered France, and gained the battle of Agincourt. Henry, by treaty, became heir to the crown, but died a few days before Charles VI. Henry VI. of England was crowned king of France at a very early age. His uncle, John, duke of Bedford, acted as regent, and during his life the power of the English increased in France. About this time Joan of Arc, an enthusiast in the cause of her country, reanimated the valour and patriotism of the French nation. She fought several battles with success, but was at length taken at Compiégne, and burnt as a witch, by order of the English. [See "ENGLAND," *Henry VI.*] During this time, Charles VII. reigned only over a part of France. But the duke of Bedford was no sooner dead, than the duke of Burgundy became reconciled with Charles. Normandy, Guienne, and the other provinces, which had been held by the power of the duke of Bedford, acknowledged Charles, and the English were compelled to evacuate France. Charles VII. was succeeded by Louis XI., his rebellious son. He established the posts. He was a bad son, and as bad a father; a severe prince, but a deep politician. Some important changes in the political condition and the manners of the nation were produced in this reign. The royal power was extended and consolidated, the knights and nobles assisting in this, because it gave scope for their exploits. The gendarmerie, or body of permanent cavalry, was formed, and a corps of foot archers. Charles VIII., who succeeded him, married Anne of Brittany, thereby putting an end to the last of the great feudal fiefs of France. He restored to Ferdinand V. Cardagne and Roussillon. He was an amiable prince, and his death was considered as a public loss.

The House of Valois-Orleans.

A. D. 1495.—Charles VIII. dying without children, Louis, duke of Orleans, descended from Charles V., obtained the crown, of which he appeared worthy by his good qualities and his virtues. He commenced his reign by forgiving his enemies, and befriending his people. He conquered Milan, which he afterwards lost. He made himself master of the kingdom of Naples, conjointly with the king of Arragon. He made war also against Pope Julius II. Gaston, duke of Nemours, and the chevalier Bayard, greatly distinguished themselves; but the French were obliged to quit Italy. Louis XII. acquired glory more durable, by gaining the love of his people, and by his extraordinary affability, than by his wars.

House of Valois-Angouleme.

A. D. 1515.—A prince of the house of Valois-Angoulême ascended the throne after the death of Louis XII., who left an only daughter, married to Francis, count of Angoulême, heir to the crown. Francis defeated the Swiss at Marignan, reunited Brittany to the crown, and conquered Luxembourg. He was the protector and the promoter of the fine arts, and a great encourager of the learned. He died with the reputation of being the most polite prince in Europe.

A. D. 1547.—Henry II. succeeded Francis. The face of affairs changed at the commencement of the reign of this prince. He joined the league of the protestant princes against the emperor, and made himself master of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. The emperor, Charles V., besieged Metz; the duke of Guise obliged him to raise the siege, and defeated him at Renti. Henry afterwards entered into a league against the house of Austria in Spain, and Philip II. avenged the honour of the Spaniards at St. Quintin. The duke of Guise took Calais from the English, and the peace of Cateau Cambresis terminated the war. Francis II., his son, succeeded to the throne—a prince without any remarkable vices or virtues. He was married to Mary, queen of Scots, and died at the age of seventeen.

A. D. 1560.—Francis II. was succeeded by Charles IX. The religious wars, the seeds of which had been previously sown, broke out with fury in this reign. The massacre of Vassi was the signal, and France presented nothing but one continued scene of sanguinary factions for years. The massacre of St. Bartholomew's day covered the land with the bleeding bodies of the protestants. On the eve of St. Bartholomew, orders had been sent to the governors of provinces to fall upon the protestants in every department throughout France; and though an edict was published before the end of the week, assuring them of the king's protection, and that he by no means designed to exterminate them because of their religion, yet private orders were sent of a nature directly contrary; in consequence of which the massacre at Paris was repeated in many of the principal towns, and in the space of two months fifty thousand protestants were cruelly butchered. From the time of this most atrocious order, given by Charles himself, he was taken ill, and languished with bodily pains, until relieved by death, A. D. 1572. Charles, dying without issue, was succeeded by his brother, Henry III., who, in 1575, concluded the celebrated "edict of pacification" with the protestants; the substance of which was, that liberty of conscience, and the public exercise of religion, were granted to the reformed, without any other restriction than that they should not preach within two leagues of Paris, or any other place where the court was. This edict caused the Guises to form an association called the "catholic league." This struck at the very root of the king's authority; for as the protestants had already their chiefs, so the catholics were for the future to depend entirely upon the chief of the league,

and execute whatever he commanded. Hence arose another persecution of the protestants, and another reconciliation. In the end, however, the king perished by assassination at the hands of a monk, in the year 1588. Before the king's death he nominated Henry of Bourbon, king of Navarre, as his successor on the throne of France.

THIRD BRANCH.—*House of Bourbon.*

A. D. 1589.—Henry IV. took the title of king of France and Navarre; and his first care was to put an end to the religious disputes which had so long distracted the kingdom. For this purpose he subsequently promulgated the celebrated edict of Nantes, which re-established all the favours that had ever been granted to the reformed by other princes. He was acknowledged by the lords of the court, but opposed by the catholic league, which set up the old cardinal of Bourbon as king, under the title of Charles X. Henry IV., with a small army and little money, was obliged to conquer his kingdom. He raised the siege of Paris, and defeated the duke of Mayenne, at Arques and at Ivri. After this success he presented himself before Paris, and before Rouen, which places he besieged in form, but was compelled to abandon them by the duke of Parma. The duke of Mayenne assembled the states-general for the election of a king of France; but the victory gained by Henry at Dreux, and his abjuration of the protestant religion, overthrew all their projects, and Paris and the greater part of the cities in the kingdom, submitted to his government. The duke of Mayenne retired into Burgundy; but the leaguers, supported by Spain, were still in opposition in Brittany. Henry declared war against Spain, and defeated the Spanish army at Fontaine-Françoise. With the assistance of his sagacious friend and minister, Sully, he established order in the finances, and in every department of the state; and while intent on reducing the dangerous power of the house of Austria, and rendering still greater service to the people, he was stabbed by a fanatical priest named Ravilliac Thus fell the greatest prince ever known in France—the best and bravest of its kings.

A. D. 1610.—Louis XIII., surnamed the Just, succeeded Henry IV. Being a minor, Mary de Medicis was declared regent of the kingdom, and dispensed with profusion the riches which Henry had amassed to render France powerful. The queen's favourite, a Florentine, named Concini, governed the state. The lords, dissatisfied with the pride and despotism of this stranger, took to arms; and the death of the favourite calmed the intestine division. But no sooner was Concini in his grave, than another favourite, De Luynes appeared, possessing more power, if possible, than the former. Louis banished his mother to Blois. The celebrated Richelieu, then bishop of Lucon, effected a reconciliation between them, and received, as a reward, a cardinal's hat. The protestants, much aggrieved by the catholics, took to arms. The king marched against them, and was victorious in every quarter, except at Montaubon, from whence he was obliged to retire with great loss. The credit and ambition of Richelieu increased daily, until he was declared minister of the state. The war was renewed with the protestants, and Rochelle, the bulwark of the Calvinists, was, after a severe conflict, reduced by the king. The queen-mother, and Gaston d'Orleans, became jealous of the authority of Richelieu, and, disgusted with his pride, left the kingdom; and the duke de Montmorenci was beheaded at Toulouse. Richelieu died in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and his death was soon followed by that of the king, who was succeeded by his son.

A. D. 1643.—Louis XIV. being only six years old when his father died, the queen, Anne of Austria, was declared regent of the kingdom, and appointed Cardinal Mazarine as minister. Condé defeated the emperor at Rocroy, at Fribourg, at Nordlingen, and at Lens; and these successes,

seconded by those of Turenne, determined the emperor to conclude peace. The Spaniards still continued the war. The young king took the field in person at the head of his armies, and Stenay and Montmedi were the fruits of his first efforts for military fame. Peace was soon after concluded between Don Louis de Haro, on the part of the Spaniards, and Cardinal Mazarine, on that of the French. The cardinal died soon after, leaving the finances in the most deranged state, and the navy nearly ruined. Louis XIV. now took the reins of government into his own hands. He thirsted for glory, and had the discernment to choose great men as his ministers. Colbert and Louvois filled the first offices of the state. The finances, the commerce, the marine, the civil and military government, the sciences and the arts, experienced a happy change. The death of Philip IV. of Spain occasioned the renewal of war. Louis headed his troops, showing a great example of activity and courage; and his conquests were the means of re-establishing peace. The success of his arms alarmed the neighbouring powers, who entered into a defensive league against France. Louis again took the field, and conquered the greater part of Holland, which he was obliged to evacuate through the firmness and intrepidity of the stadtholder, afterwards William III., king of Great Britain. The theatre of the war was soon after changed, and Franche Compté was reconquered. In the zenith of his conquests, Louis dictated the conditions of the peace of Nimeguen; but this peace was soon after infracted. The Spaniards lost Luxembourg; Algiers, Tripoli, and Geneva were bombarded, and obtained peace by making reparation in proportion to the offences they had given. The princes of Europe formed the league of Augsburg against Louis, of which William, prince of Orange, was the soul. Louis impoliticly revoked the edict of Nantes, thereby depriving himself of the services of many thousands of his best and most useful subjects, the protestants, whom he threw into the arms of his enemies. Having so done, he marched against the allied powers. He took, in person, Mons and Namur; and under Luxembourg, Catinat, and Vendome, the French signalized themselves at Fleurus, at Steinkirk, at Neuvinde, at Barcelona, and elsewhere. James II., of England, having abdicted his throne, flew to France as an asylum; and Louis endeavoured, but in vain, to re-establish him. Peace was made at Ryswick, and Europe once more enjoyed repose.

Peace was of short duration; the death of Charles II. of Spain rekindled the flames of war. Philip, duke of Berri, by the will of the late king, was named heir to the Spanish throne, which he ascended by the name of Philip V. The emperor claimed the crown of Spain for his son. War was declared, and the fortune of arms appeared to have abandoned Louis, who, as well as Philip, sued for peace; but the terms offered by the allies were so hard, as to excite the indignation of the Bourbons. The war was continued, and at length terminated in favour of France, who saw Philip in peaceable possession of the crown of Spain, secured by the peace of Utrecht in 1713. Two years after, Louis died, having reigned seventy-two years. The reign of Louis XIV. has been celebrated as the era which produced everything great and noble in France. He has been held up to the world as the munificent patron of the arts, and a prince whose conceptions and plans were always grand and dignified. The true character of kings can only be justly determined by posterity, and the reputation of this celebrated monarch has not been strengthened by time. After every proper tribute of applause is rendered him, it may be asserted, that, in general, he rather displayed a preposterous vanity than true greatness of character, which has been productive of such baneful effects, that the decline of the French monarchy may said to have mainly originated from his conduct. It must be admitted that in the earlier years of his reign, Louis was a liberal patron of letters, and many of the most

celebrated writers flourished; as Corneille and Racine, the two greatest tragic poets of France, and Moliere, the first comic writer; Boileau, the satirist; Fontaine, Fenelon, Massilon, and others. The close of the long career of Louis, once styled by the French "the great," was disgraced by gloomy and bigoted intolerance.

A. D. 1715.—Louis XV. succeeded his grandfather at the age of five years and a half. The regency was conferred on his uncle, the duke of Orleans, under whose auspices the unfortunate Mississippi scheme, planned by Law, a Scotchman, took place. The king took the government upon himself at the age of fifteen, and appointed Cardinal Fleury, his preceptor, prime minister. The emperor disturbing the peace of Europe, Spain and Sardinia united with France, and declared war. The taking of Philipsburg, the victories of Parma and Placentia, and the conquests of Don Carlos, put an end to this short war, which gave Lorraine to France. The death of the Emperor Charles VI. plunged Europe again into war. France favoured the pretensions of the elector of Bavaria. The combined armies of France and Bavaria subdued Upper Austria, and possessed themselves of Prague, where the elector was crowned king of Bohemia. But a sad reverse was soon after experienced. Austria and Bohemia were torn from Charles VII., who had been elected emperor by the assistance of France; and peace was demanded of the Hungarian queen, but refused. Louis XV., who, after the death of Cardinal Fleury, governed for some time in his own person, set four armies on foot, and marched into Flanders. He took Menin, Ypres, and Furnes; while the prince of Conti signalized himself in Italy. In the meantime Alsace was attacked; Louis flew to its assistance, and fell sick at Mentz. As soon as his health was re-established, he beseiged Friburg, which surrendered. Several campaigns followed with various success, until peace was made at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. War recommenced in 1755, between the English and French. In Germany it was carried on with advantage to the latter. Hanover was taken, and the duke of Cumberland made the capitulation of Closterseven disgraceful to the English. The king of Prussia defeated the French and Austrians at Rosbach, which instantly changed the face of affairs. Hanover was retaken, and the French beaten at Crevelt, by the prince of Brunswick. They were defeated at Warburg, and at Minden, by the English, who proved successful both by sea and land. Spain, alarmed at the many conquests of their arms, joined a confederacy of the princes of the house of Bourbon, known by the name of the "family compact;" and the flame of war raged in both hemispheres, to the glory of the English nation, and the loss of the Bourbons. The peace of 1763 put an end to this war. During the interval of peace, Louis conquered Corsica, after a desperate struggle on the part of that brave people for their independence, under Pascal Paoli. He died in 1774. He was a prince of very moderate parts, and was governed in a great measure by his mistresses and favourites, who also governed France.

A. D. 1774.—Louis XVI., grandson of the last king, succeeded to the throne, and soon after his accession married Antoinette, princess of Austria. He regenerated the marine, much weakened by the successes of the English in the late war; and the navy of France, in a few years after his succession, could boast of one hundred sail of the line. He assisted the Anglo-Americans to throw off the yoke of the mother country, which they effected; but it was in this war that the seeds were sown of that revolution which proved his ruin. The war of American independence had, in truth, taught the people of every country to know their power; and in France, the influence of the nobility and the crown had been annihilated by their profligacy in the preceding reign. A set of powerful but intolerant writers had also arisen, at the head of whom were Voltaire and Rousseau, who attacked all existing institutions with a wit and eloquence that

made them popular. The taxes were most unjustly distributed, the clergy and nobility being exempt from taxation, and the middling classes and the poor being obliged to defray the whole. Towards the close of the year 1788, when famine stared the miserable peasants in the face, the greatest difficulty was found to supply the enormous expenses which were every day increasing. The king was advised to call a meeting of the states-general, a measure seldom recurred to but in cases of the greatest necessity. The states-general, consisting of the nobles, clergy, and others, assembled, and commenced their sittings in the king's royal palace at Versailles, May 5th, 1789. They soon discovered the situation of the country; and they also felt their power and their consequence, from the eyes of all France being directed to their proceedings. They bound themselves, by an oath, never to separate until the constitution of the kingdom, and the regeneration of public order, were established and fixed on a solid basis. They declared themselves inviolable, by a majority of 493 against 34; and seemed passionately in love with freedom and their country. The celebrated Necker was dismissed the ministry, and retired from France. A state of universal agitation was now on the eve of commencing; an awful scene approached, from which we date the French revolution. The citizens of Paris, who had assembled on Sunday evening, the 12th of July, 1789, in the public walks of the Palais Royal, proceeded from thence to the house of an artist on the Boulevards; and having procured a bust of M. Necker, and also of the duke of Orleans, they adorned them with crape, and carried them through the streets in triumph. When they came to the square of Place Vendôme, they were stopped by the German regiment of horse, who dispersed the people, and broke the bust of Necker. Some few were wounded, but they soon rallied in increased numbers. The army, which had been stationed round Paris, now came forward in full force with a body of cavalry, and the Prince de Lambesq, of the house of Lorraine, at their head. He had received orders from Marshal Broglio, to take post near the gardens of the Tuilleries, and maintain himself in that position, without doing any mischief to the people; but they were now assembled in such numbers, and were so tumultuous, that the prince, finding himself hemmed in, and fearful of being cut off, entered the gardens of the Tulleries at the head of his German regiment, and, with his drawn sword, wounded a peaceable citizen who was walking there. The disorder from that time became universal; the soldiers fired on the people; and what with the shrieks of the women, the groans of the wounded, and the arbitrary behaviour of the military, the whole city was in an instant thrown into a convulsed state. The general cry was, "To arms!" Muskets, and other weapons of defence, were soon in every hand. The French guards not only refused to fire on their countrymen, but united in their cause. They marched to the Place of Louis XV. to meet the German regiment. They soon came up with them, as well as with some hussars of the Hungarian light-horse, who had joined the Germans. A smart action took place, and the Germans were driven back in disorder, leaving eleven of their comrades killed or wounded behind them. On the 14th of July, in the morning, almost every person in Paris was armed; the soldiers mingled with the populace, and all at once a numerous body exclaimed, "Let us storm the Bastile." They immediately proceeded towards it, and presented themselves before the tremendous fortress, by the great street of St. Anthony. M. De Launay, the governor, caused a flag of truce to be hung out, upon which a detachment of the patriotic guards, with five or six hundred citizens, introduced themselves into the first court. The governor having advanced to the drawbridge, inquired of the people what they wanted. They answered, "ammunition and arms." He promised to furnish them, instead of which he caused the drawbridge to be raised, and a discharge of artillery on all those men

who were in the first court, whereby many were killed and wounded. The governor now turned his cannon on the city. The populace, burning with revenge, sent for the cannon from the Invalids, upon which five pieces were soon brought, and delivered to experienced gunners. Three pieces of artillery, under the direction of M. Hulin, were also brought into the court of the Saltpetriere, contiguous to the Bastile, and immediately pointed against that fortress, on which they fired with great vivacity. The governor perceiving he could not hold out against such a phalanx as opposed him, threw out a white flag. The besiegers, however, would look at nothing that might lessen their resentment, or excite pity in favour of the besieged. The governor made a second attempt to pacify them, but in vain. He acquainted them, by a paper introduced through a crevice of the drawbridge, that he had 50,000lb. weight of gunpowder, and would blow up the garrison, and all its environs, if a capitulation was not accepted. The besiegers despised this menace, and continued their firing with additional vigour. Three cannon were brought forward to beat down the drawbridge. The governor then demolished the little bridge of passage on the left-hand, at the entrance of the fortress. Hely, Hulin, and Maillard, leaped on the bridge, and demanded that the inmost gate should be instantly opened. The besieged obeyed; and the besiegers pushed forward to make good their entrance, massacring all who came in their way, and soon after the standard of the victors was seen hoisted on the highest tower. In the meantime the principal drawbridge was let down; the populace rushed in, every one eager to discover the governor, and to plunge his sword into his treacherous bosom. One Arné, a grenadier, singled him out, seized, and disarmed him, and delivered him up to Hulin and Hely. The deputy governor, the major, and the captain of the gunners, were also seized. The victors proceeded with their prisoners to the Hotel de Ville; but they were scarcely arrived, when the mob tore them from the hands of those who held them in security, and trampled them under foot, and De Launay and the major, pierced with countless wounds, expired.

Thus fell the Bastile, after a siege of three hours only; a fortress that the most experienced generals of the age of Louis XIV. had deemed impregnable. It was began by Charles V. in 1369, and finished in 1383. The court, utterly astounded at these proceedings, now ordered the dismissal of the troops, and the recall of Necker. Bailly, who presided at the tennis court, was nominated mayor of Paris, and Lafayette became the commander of the national guards. A crowd of the lowest rabble, accompanied by some of the national guards, proceeded to Versailles, and entered the palace amid threats and execrations the most indecent and revolting. The king was compelled to accompany them to Paris, and to receive from the hands of Bailly the tri-coloured cockade, as a mark of his union with the people. At this period the famous Jacobin club was formed; an illegal and violent power, which raised itself at the side of the national representation in order soon after to crush it. At first it consisted of a few well-disposed deputies and patriots, but it soon changed its character, and became the focus of insurrection and treasonable excitement.

The French Revolution.—*The Limited Monarchy.*

A. D. 1789.—We now come to the month of August, an ever memorable era in the history of France. The new constitution was finally ushered into the national assembly on the 1st day of the month. The articles being all discussed, the king accepted it with seeming sincerity, returning the assembly thanks for the title they had bestowed on him—that of "restorer of the liberties of France." It was not long after this, however, that Louis, probably from finding his power circumscribed, attempted to leave France, with the queen and family, and had actually pro-

ceeded near the frontiers, when he was recognized by Drouet, son of the postmaster at Varennes, who contrived to impede his journey by overturning a cart in the way. In the meantime he conveyed the intelligence to the guard. The king was now fully identified, but denied having any intention of leaving France. He was, however, conveyed back to Paris, where he had been but a very short time missed. His brothers escaped by taking different routes. This attempt of Louis to leave the kingdom irritated the Parisians almost to frenzy, and he was soon after conveyed to the Temple as a prisoner, together with his queen, his children, and his sister, Madame Elizabeth. Here he suffered a rigorous confinement, until he was brought to trial before the national convention—for by that appellation the national assembly was then known. Being convicted of what they termed treason against that constitution which he had sworn to defend, he was condemned to die by the guillotine, which death he suffered on the 21st of January, 1793, with great fortitude, and was buried privately, in a churchyard of Paris; his grave was filled with lime in order to prevent his partizans from removing his body. Thus died Louis XVI., who, if not the greatest of the French monarchs, was certainly one of the most unoffending; but he was irresolute, brought up in the habits of indolence, and of a court famous for its breach of faith. He was, in fact, in every respect, unsuitable to the government of the French nation, whether as a despotism or a free government; the latter he himself certainly was the means of introducing, by the part he took in the contest between Great Britain and her American colonies.

2. *The Republican Government.*

A. D. 1792.—During the confinement of Louis, the constitution was modelled anew. The limited monarchy gave way to the republican government, which took place the 23d of September, 1792. The death of the queen soon followed; the absurd and infamous charges brought against her astonished all Europe. But no power could save the once beautiful Marie Antoinette; her doom had doubtless long been decreed; and she suffered by the axe of the guillotine, on the 16th of October, 1793, after having been treated with every possible indignity. Her body was immediately interred in a grave filled with quick-lime, like that of her husband. This highly accomplished woman, who is described as a model of grace and beauty, was in her 38th year, and sister of Leopold II., late emperor of Germany. La Vendee rose, and the continent as well as England armed in hostility to the convention, whom nothing seemed to intimidate. Fourteen armies, without experience, and merely with the aid of paper money, were set in motion. Custine took Mentz; Montesquieu invaded Savoy; Lille repulsed the Austrians, who bombarded the city; and Dumouriez, making a descent upon Belgium, carried the redoubts of Jenappe at the point of the bayonet. The generals had only to sound the Marseillais hymn, and the citizen soldiers saw in the republic a futurity of peace and prosperity, although the roots of what was called the tree of liberty were saturated with blood. Lyons, after a two months' siege, surrendered to the republicans, and there are few examples, even amid the horrid scenes of barbarous warfare, of more vindictive cruelty than took place there. The guillotine being deemed too slow an engine of destruction, crowds were driven into the Rhone, or butchered in the squares by discharges of grape-shot. Barrère sent a flaming account to the convention, which decreed that the walls and public buildings of the city should be razed, and Lyons henceforth called *La Ville Affranchie.* The excesses and enormities of this period of French history are almost, indeed, too incredible for the sober pen of history to record. A new calendar was formed; and in order to obliterate the remembrance of the Christian sabbath, each month was subdivided into three decades, the first days of which were festivals

or days of rest. A few days after, the municipal authorities of Paris appeared in the convention, attended by the bishop and clergy, decorated with caps of liberty, who publicly renounced their offices of Christian pastors. The bishop of Moulins threw down his mitre, and preached the doctrine that "death is an eternal sleep." Various allegorical creations, such as Liberty and Equality, were deified, and a young woman of abandoned character was enshrined as the Goddess of Reason on the altar of Notre Dame, to receive the adoration of the multitude. But the reign of Robespierre was now in its plenitude; a tyrant more savage and bloody cannot be found since the days of Nero and Caligula. The guillotine was in constant action, and thousands were immolated to his sanguinary vengeance. Royalists and republicans indiscriminately felt the axe; and among his victims were Madame Elizabeth, sister to the king, and the duke of Orleans, the king's cousin, who had, in the national convention, voted for the death of Louis. The latter not only died unpitied, but execrated by both parties, for the infamous part he had acted towards his near relation. This "bold bad man," who had renounced his title, and adopted the name of Philip Egalité, was in his 46th year, and met death with apparent indifference. Under the mask of patriotism he aspired to the throne, but met his just reward (though not for his regicidal and unnatural crime), from the guillotine. Who at that time could have imagined that young Egalité, his son, who had fought under the banners of the republic, would one day be saluted as Louis Philippe, king of the French!

This era was appropriately termed "the reign of terror." But the power of Robespierre was not to endure forever. Talien had the virtue and courage to denounce him, in the convention, for his numberless barbarities. The members well knew they held their heads by the slight tenure of his will only; they were therefore gratified by the opportunity which now offered itself for his destruction; they supported the denunciation against him; and but a few hours elapsed between his accusation and his death, on that scaffold where he had so recently sent his victims by dozens. This event, which gave general satisfaction, took place the 28th of July, 1794. The constitution of the third year, was, soon after the death of Robespierre, put into force. A directory, consisting of five, forming the executive power, was appointed; it consisted of Reubel, Barras, La Reveilliere, Lepaux, Merlin, and Treilliard; and two councils; the first, of the "elders;" and the latter, of "five hundred," formed the legislative part. One third of each chamber was to be renewed annually; and one of the "directors" was to go out yearly, and be replaced by the election of another. The armies of France had been contending, from the year 1792, with those of almost every power in Europe. Pruesia was, indeed, early drawn off from the contest; though it had penetrated the French territory. The republican arms were in general successful by land; and, in the beginning of 1795, they were in possession of all the Austrian Netherlands, Holland, and Germany, to the banks of the Rhine; they were also masters of Savoy on the side of Italy.

Early in 1796, Bonaparte, a young man, till then unknown in the world of politics, was appointed, through the powerful interference of the director Barras, to the command of the army of Italy. No sooner had he taken the field, than victory appeared to have adopted him as her favourite son. His prodigious successes astonished the world. He defeated the Austrians and Piedmontese in the battles of Montenotte and of Milesimo, in April, 1796; compelled the king of Sardinia to conclude a treaty of peace, in which Savoy and Nice were given up to France; on the 8th of May he crossed the Po; on the succeding day he forced Parma to consent to an armistice; defeated General Wurmser on the 3d of August at Lonado, and on the 5th at Castiglione; advanced against the Tyrol; defeated

Alvinzi at Arcole on the 15th of November, and at Rivoli on the 14th of January, 1797; concluded the peace of Tolentino, in which the pope yielded Avignon to France, and Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna to the Cisalpine republic, on the 19th of February; and defeated the archduke Charles at Lesonzo; and signed preliminaries of peace with Austria at Leoben on the 16th of April, 1797, which formed the peace of Campo Formio, by which alone the Austrian capital was saved from destruction.

This treaty led to a congress to be held for the adjustment of claims, and to bring about that desirable blessing, peace. Radstadt was the place appointed for the meeting of the ministers of the different powers who were to assist. Fifteen months elapsed in negotiation, which terminated in delusion; and the French plenipotentiaries, Bonnier and Roberjot, were assassinated by some German soldiers on their return to France. Both parties having in the interim recruited their strength, renewed the war.

During the above-mentioned negotiation, a plan was laid in France for the conquest of Egypt. They accordingly fitted out a formidable fleet at Toulon, on board of which were embarked 42,000 troops, the flower of Bonaparte's victorious Italian army. All Europe was interested in the destination of so formidable an armament, but more particularly England. Bonaparte it was generally understood, was to have the command; but the great secrecy with which everything relating thereto was conducted, baffled all the efforts at the discovery of his real designs. It left Toulon in May, 1798, under the command of Brieux as admiral, and Bonaparte as commander-in-chief of the troops, and steered to the eastward. In June, Malta submitted; and on the 2d of July, it reached Alexandria, in Egypt; having had the good fortune to escape the vigilance of Admiral Nelson, who had been dispatched in search of it as soon as it was known for a certainty that it had gone to the eastward. Alexandria was taken on the 3d; and the beys and Mamelukes were defeated in several actions. Egypt, including its capital, Grand Cairo, was in the possession of the French in twenty-one days from their landing. Bonaparte had landed his forces but a short time before the English fleet appeared on the coast of Egypt. The French fleet lay in the bay of Aboukir, moored in the greatest security; Nelson attacked it on the 1st of August, and gained a victory as complete as any in the naval annals of the country. Bonaparte having brought Egypt under his power, his next object was Syria, for the invasion of which he was in readiness early in February, 1799. He marched from Grand Cairo across the desert. He took El Arish, Joppa, and Jerusalem, and penetrated the country as far as Acre, which place he besieged. Here he met with an unexpected foe, in the captains and crews of a small English fleet, commanded by Sir Sydney Smith, which had come to the assistance of the pacha; and after many most daring attempts to take that city, during forty days and upwards, he retired with considerable loss.

It was during the siege of Acre that Bonaparte first heard of the reverses of the French, and the loss of the greater part of his conquests in Italy. He soon afterwards defeated the army of the pacha of Natolia at Aboukir, and his departure from Egypt followed immediately on that event. He left the government of his new conquest under General Kleber, and, embarking on board a small vessel, with a few of his principal officers, had the good fortune to escape the numerous English cruisers, and arrived at Frejus on the 13th of October. He was received in Paris on the 16th, amid the acclamations of the people, and was soon made acquainted with the external and internal situation of France. He deplored the loss of those conquests which had acquired to him immortal fame, but he further deplored the state of the country, torn into a variety of factions. An army unclothed, unfed, and unpaid; a part of the interior of the republic in rebellion; a host of foes from without pressing it on all sides; the finances in the utmost possible state of derangement; and the resources drained

almost to the last livre. The quick discernment of Bonaparte told him that nothing short of a grand effort could save France from ruin. He soon made up his mind to the action, and, assisted by a few friends, his generals, and his army, actually assumed the government on the 9th of November, abolishing, at the same time, the constitution of the third year. He was soon after elected first consul, with extraordinary powers.

The scene that took place on this memorable occasion is well worth transcribing: The legislature met at St. Cloud; the council of elders in the great gallery, and that of five hundred, of whom Lucien Bonaparte was president, in the orangery. Bonaparte entered the council of elders, and, in an animated address, described the dangers that menaced the republic, and conjured them to associate their wisdom with the force which surrounded him. A member using the word "constitution," Bonaparte exclaimed, "The constitution! It has been trodden under foot, and used as a cloak for all manner of tyranny." Meanwhile a violent debate was going on in the orangery, several members insisting upon knowing why the place of sitting had been changed. The president endeavoured to allay the storm; but the removal had created great heat, and the cry was, "Down with the dictator! No dictator!" At that moment Bonaparte himself entered, bare-headed, followed by four grenadiers; on which several members exclaimed, "Who is that? No sabres here! No armed men!" While others descending into the hall, collared him, calling him "Outlaw," and pushed him towards the door. One member aimed a blow at him with a dagger, which was parried by a grenadier. Disconcerted at this rough treatment, General Lefevre came to his aid; and Bonaparte retiring, mounted his horse, and addressed the troops outside. His brother Lucien also made a forcible appeal to the military, and the result was, that a picket of grenadiers entered the hall, and the drums beating the *pas de charge*, cleared it at the point of the bayonet. This truly Cromwellian argument decided the affair, and in the evening it was declared that the directory had ceased to exist; that a provisional consular commission should be appointed, composed of citizens Sieyes, Ducos, and Bonaparte; and that the two councils should name committees, of 25 members each, to prepare a new constitution. In the interval between the abolition of one constitution and the creation of another, the consuls were invested with a dictatorship. Lucien Bonaparte was made minister of the interior; Talleyrand, of foreign affairs; Carnot, of war; and Fouché, of police.

The Consular Government.

A. D. 1800.—The new constitution consisted of an executive composed of three consuls, one bearing the title of chief, and in fact possessing all the authority; of a conservative senate, composed of 80 members, appointed for life, the first 60 to be nominated by the consuls, and the number to be completed by adding two, annually, for ten years, and a legislative body of 300 members, and a tribunate of 100. Bonaparte was nominated the first consul, for ten years; Cambacères and Lebrun, second and third consuls, for five years. Sieyes, who had taken an active part in bringing about the revolution, and in framing the new constitution, was rewarded by the grant of an estate worth 15,000 francs per annum. One of the first acts of the consulate was a direct overture from Bonaparte to the king of England for peace; which was replied to by the English minister, who adverted to the origin of the war, and intimated that "the restoration of the ancient line of princes, under whom France had enjoyed so many centuries of prosperity," would afford the best guarantee for the maintenance of peace between the two countries. This was of course construed, as it was meant, a rejection of the offer. The strength and energy of the new government made itself visible in the immediate union of the best

leaders of all parties; in the return of many thousand emigrants in the humbler ranks of life, and in the activity which was displayed by all who held office under the consular government. Bonaparte soon put himself at the head of the army of Italy, and by the rapidity of his operations outgeneralled his opponents. Having made himself acquainted with the position of the Austrian army, encamped in a valley at the foot of Mount St. Bernard, he formed the bold design of surprising them by crossing that part of the Alps which was before considered inaccessible to a regularly equipped army. It was, in truth, a most difficult and daring exploit, exceeding anything that had occurred since the days of Hannibal; but in proportion to the peril of the undertaking, was the glory that awaited it. The battle of Marengo, which was fought on the 14th of June, 1800, decided the fate of Italy. Moreau, who was at this time commanding the army of the Rhine, gained the battle of Hohenlinden, December 3d, and threatened Vienna. These great victories were followed by the conclusion of a treaty with Austria, in its own name, and that of the German empire, but without the concurrence of England, on the 9th of February, 1801. In this peace, the course of the Rhine was fixed as the limit between France and Germany. Those German princes who lost their territories beyond the Rhine by this new arrangement, were to be indemnified by additional possessions on the right bank of that river. In Italy the course of the Adige was fixed as the boundary between Austria and the Cisalpine republic, and the former power gave the Briesgau and Ortenau to the duke of Modena. The territories of the grand duke of Tuscany were erected into the kingdom of Etruria, which was given to the hereditary prince of Parma, according to a treaty between France and Spain, the grand duke to be indemnified in Germany for the loss of his territories. This peace was the prelude to others. On the 29th of September, 1801, Portugal concluded a treaty with France, and Russia and Turkey on the 8th and 9th of October.

A. D. 1802.—England was also now disposed to enter into negotiations for peace, and the terms of the treaty of Amiens were soon arranged. France retained her acquisitions in Germany and the Netherlands, and her supremacy in Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. England consented to resign Malta to the knights of St. John, to make the Ionian islands an independent republic, and to restore all the colonies she had taken from France, except Ceylon and Trinidad. France, on the other hand, guaranti ed the existence of the kingdoms of Naples and Portugal. The treaty was signed on the 27th of March, 1802, and for a short time the inhabitants of Europe were flattered with the prospect of continued tranquillity. In May, Bonaparte founded the legion of honour, and soon after, he was chosen first consul for life. He had just before concluded with the newly-elected pope a concordat for the Gallican church, the articles of which were—the establishment of the free exercise of the catholic religion; a new division of the French dioceses, the bishops to be nominated by the first consul, and to take an oath of fidelity to the republic. He also put an end to the proscription of the emigrants, and numbers returned to end their days in the land of their birth. But his extraordinary successes, the adulation of the army, and his elevation, intoxicated the chief consul; so much so, indeed, that it was not long before he took an opportunity of openly insulting the English ambassador. A renewal of hostilities was the natural result, and to such an extent did Bonaparte carry his animosity towards England, that on the ground that two French ships had been captured prior to the formal declaration of war, he issued a decree for the detention of all the English in France, and under this infringement of international law, the number of British subjects detained in France amounted to 11,000, and in Holland to 1,300.

A. D. 1804.—In February a plot was discovered in Paris for the assas-

sination of Bonaparte and the overthrow of the consular government. The principals in this conspiracy were General Pichegru, Georges, an enthusiastic loyalist, and Lajolais, a friend of General Moreau, who also was charged with disaffection to the consular government. Pending the trials Pichegru was found strangled in prison; Georges and some of his accomplices were publicly executed, and Moreau was sentenced to two years' imprisonment, which was commuted to banishment to America. One of the foulest atrocities of modern times was next perpetrated by the order of Bonaparte. The duke d'Enghien, eldest son of the duke of Bourbon, was seized in the neutral territory of Baden, and taken first to Strasburgh, thence to Paris, and afterwards to the castle of Vincennes, where a military commission met on the night of his arrival, to try him, on the charges of having served in the emigrant armies against France, and of being privy to the conspiracy of Georges. It, however, signified little what the charges were; he was destined for immediate execution; and, in defiance of every barrier of international law, he was taken out and shot in the castle ditch, almost immediately after his midnight trial was concluded. The prince had the reputation of being a brave soldier and a virtuous man, hence he was the more obnoxious! The ambition of Bonaparte to obtain the imperial dignity, and his denunciations against England, seemed to occupy all his thoughts; and, truly, these were objects of no little magnitude. At length, on the first of May, a motion was made in the tribunate for conferring on Napoleon the rank of emperor, with hereditary succession in his family. The decree of the tribunate was adopted by the senate, and power given to Bonaparte, if he had no male issue, to adopt an heir from the children of his brothers. The titles of prince, princess, and imperial highness, were conferred on all members of the Bonaparte family. Thus ended the French republic, under all its phases. It had lasted eleven years and four months, almost the exact duration of the English commonwealth from the death of Charles I.

Pope Pius VII. now proceeded to Paris, and on the 2d of December solemnly anointed the new emperor, who himself placed the imperial crown upon his own head. The Italian republic followed the example of France; and on the 15th of March, 1805, having named their president king of Italy, Napoleon, on the 26th of May, with his own hands also placed the new crown of the Lombardian kings upon his own head, and was anointed by the archbishop of Milan. During his presence in Italy, the senate of the Ligurian republic demanded and obtained the incorporation of the Genoese state with the French empire, on the 4th of June; and the small republic of Lucca was transformed in the same year into an hereditary principality for Bonaparte's sister, the princess Eliza. He was already, also, preparing thrones to establish his brothers. The threatened invasion of Britain had long been the theme of every tongue, and the people of France had been diverted from all other thoughts during the momentous changes which, with a magician's wand, had taken place in the system of government, for the attainment of which the blood of Frenchmen had flowed with such reckless prodigality. A third coalition against France was concluded at Petersburgh, between England and Russia, April 11. Austria joined the confederacy in August; and Sweden likewise was made a party to it, and received a subsidy. But the Emperor Napoleon felt assured that, while he could detach Prussia from the alliance, which he did by promising Hanover to the king, he had no great reason to apprehend any serious injury from the other powers. In Italy, the archduke Charles was opposed to Marshal Massena; at the same time twenty-five thousand French marched under St. Cyr from Naples into Upper Italy, after a treaty of neutrality had been concluded between France and Naples. The Austrian army in Germany was commanded by the archduke Ferdinand and General Mack. This army penetrated into Bavaria in Septem-

ber, 1805, and demanded that the elector should either unite his forces with the Austrians or disband them; upon which the elector joined Napoleon; and a similar course was adopted by the dukes of Wirtemberg and Baden.

Forsaking the camp of Boulogne, where he had been preparing the "army of England" for the projected invasion, Napoleon hastened towards Wirtemberg, and issued a declaration of war. The corps of Bernadotte and the Bavarians having marched towards the Danube, through the neutral province of Anspach, belonging to Prussia, the latter power, which had assembled its armies in the neighbourhood of the Russian frontier, renounced its obligations to France; and by the treaty of Potsdam, concluded on on the 3d of November, during the stay of the emperor Alexander at Berlin, promised to join the enemies of Napoleon. The Prussian armies, in conjunction with the Saxons and Hessians, took up a hostile position extending between the frontiers of Silesia and the Danube. But the Austrian armies in Suabia had been rapidly turned and defeated by the French, in a series of operations extending from the 6th to the 13th of October, upon which Mack, in the infamous capitulation of Ulm, surrendered with thirty thousand men, but the archduke Ferdinand, by constant fighting, reached Bohemia. The French now penetrated through Bavaria and Austria into Moravia, and after having obtained possession, in November, of the defiles of the Tyrol, and driven back several Russian corps in a series of skirmishes, they occupied Vienna on the 13th of November, and afterwards took possession of Presburg. The next great battle, fought at Austerlitz on the 2d of December, decided the war, although it had only lasted two months; and the archduke Charles, having received information of the event in Suabia, retired through the German provinces, after having fought a dreadful battle upon the Adige, which lasted three days. The battle of Austerlitz, in which Napoleon so signally defeated the allies, was well contested by the troops on both sides. The Austro-Russian armies amounted to eighty thousand men, commanded by General Kutusoff and Prince Lichenstein; one hundred pieces of cannon, and thirty thousand killed, wounded, and prisoners on the side of the allies, was an irresistible proof of the desperate nature of the conflict, as well as the good fortune of Napoleon. An immense number perished in a lake by the ice giving way. Davoust, Soult, Lannes, Berthier, and Murat most distinguished themselves among the French marshals.

An interview between Napoleon and Francis II. immediately followed, and an armistice was concluded on the 6th. By the treaty of peace of Presburg, Austria yielded its Venetian possessions to the kingdom of Italy; the Tyrol and several German countries to Bavaria; Briesgau to Baden, and other Suabian possessions to Wirtemberg. She also recognized the electors of Bavaria and Wirtemberg as kings, and the elector of Baden as sovereign elector. These and other concessions Austria was compelled to make. But during the victorious course of the armies of France by land, she suffered deeply from the naval power of England, the united fleets of France and Spain, under Villeneuve and Gravina, being nearly annihilated by Nelson in the battle of Trafalgar. This took place on the 21st of October. On the 15th of December the emperor concluded a treaty with Prussia, at Vienna, in which the alliance between both these powers was renewed, and a reciprocal guarantee of the ancient and newly-acquired states exchanged. France pretended to give Hanover to Prussia; and, on the other hand, Prussia yielded to France, Anspach, Cleve, and Neufchatel. Prussia was now obliged to act offensively against England, as well by taking possession of Hanover as by excluding English vessels from the ports under her control. Joseph, the elder brother of Napoleon, was by an imperial decree named king of Naples and Sicily, which had been conquered by Marshal Massena, who marched

with an army from Upper Italy into Naples, on account of a pretended breach of neutrality, occasioned by the landing of the English and Russians. But Ferdinand IV. took refuge in Sicily with his family; and that island being protected by the English fleet, formed merely a nominal appendage to the crown of Joseph Bonaparte. Prince Eugene Beauharnois, son of the empress Josephine by her first husband, was named viceroy of Italy; Talleyrand received the nominal title of prince of Benevento; Bernadotte was proclaimed prince of Ponte Corvo; and Louis, the second brother of the emperor, was proclaimed hereditary and constitutional king of Holland. With the same disregard of political justice, the constitution of the German empire, which had lasted for above a thousand years, was overthrown on the 12th of July, 1806, to make way for the Rhenish confederation, of which the emperor Napoleon was named protector.

Prussia, at this period still trembling for her own safety, was once more excited by England and Russia to resistance; upon which Napoleon transported his immense army across the continent, and in less than one month he arrived at Berlin, having gained the ever-memorable battle of Jena, in which 250,000 men were engaged in the work of mutual destruction. More than twenty thousand Prussians were killed and wounded, and forty thousand taken prisoners, with three hundred pieces of cannon. Prince Ferdinand died of his wounds. A panic seized the garrison, and all the principal towns of Prussia, west of the Oder, surrendered to the French soon after the battle, and on the 25th of October, Napoleon entered the capitol. Bonaparte next promulgated the celebrated Berlin decree, or "continental system," by which the British islands were declared in a state of blockade; all articles of British manufacture were interdicted; and all vessels touching at England, or any English colony, excluded from every harbour under the control of France. Beyond the Vistula, the war between France and Russia was opened on the 24th of December, 1806, by the fight of Czarnowo, in which the French carried the Russian redoubts upon the left bank of the Ukra. On the succeeding morning Davoust drove field-marshal Kameuskji out of his position; and on the day following the marshal renounced the command-in-chief, in which he was succeeded by Bennigsen. This general suddenly transported the theatre of war into Eastern Prussia, where the Russians, an the 23d of January, 1807, attacked the advanced posts of the prince of Ponte Corvo, who engaged them on the 25th, at Mohrungen, and by his manœuvres covered the flank of the French army until a junction was formed. After continual fighting from the 1st to the 7th of February, the battle of Eylau took place. The slaughter was dreadful; both parties claimed the victory, and both were glad to pause while they recruited their respective armies. The next operation of consequence, was the seige and bombardment of Dantzic, by Lefebvre; and General Kalkreuth was compelled to capitulate on the 24th of May, after Marshal Lannes had defeated a body of Russians who had landed at Weichselmunde with the view of raising the siege. At last, after a series of skirmishes between the different divisions of the hostile armies, the decisive victory of the French over the Russians at Friedland, on the 14th of June, 1807, led to the peace of Tilsit; which was concluded on the 9th of July, between France and Prussia, by Talleyrand and Count Kalkreuth, after an interview between the three monarchs upon the Niemen, and subsequently at Tilsit. In this peace Prussia was shorn of territories containing upwards of one half of the former population of that kingdom; and from the various districts which fell into the conqueror's hands were formed two new states—the kingdoms of Westphalia, and the dukedom of Warsaw. The former was given to Jerome Bonaparte, and the king of Saxony was flattered with the title of duke of Warsaw. Upon the intercession of Russia, the dukes of Mecklenburgh-

Schwerin, Oldenburgh, and Coburg, were reinstated, and France and Russia exchanged reciprocal guarantees of their possessions, and of those of the other powers included in this peace.

Never had the fortune of man been more brilliant; the whole world was struck with astonishment at victories so rapid, and seemed to bow itself before so colossal a power. But his ambition was boundless; no sovereign could be more absolute; he regarded other men as ciphers destined to increase the amount of that unity which centered in himself. He talked of the glory of France; but he re-established the imposts, the abuses, and prodigality of the ancient monarchy. The aids and monopolies reappeared under the name of united duties. The press was kept under by a censorship; juries were perverted; prefects and other petty despots assumed the administration of justice; the emperor nominated all the public functionaries, and all were inviolable; the council of state, a dependent and removeable body, was the sole arbiter of their responsibility. The election of the deputies was ridiculous in this pretended representative government, the laws of which were the dicta of the emperor, under the name of decrees or senatorial edicts. Individual liberty no longer existed; a police, that was a true political inquisition, suspected even silence itself; accused the thoughts of men, and extended over Europe a net of iron. All this time, too, the conscription, a dreadful tax upon human life, was levied with unsparing activity; and the French youth were surrendered to his will by the senate as a sort of annual contribution. The affairs of Spain now began to occupy the attention of Napoleon; one of his first objects, however, was to destroy the English influence in Portugal. A French army, in concert with a Spanish one, marched against that kingdom, the partition of which had been concerted between France and Spain, on the 27th of October, 1807, the northern part being given to the house of Parma, the southern part to Godoy, prince of peace, and the middle, on the conclusion of peace, to the house of Braganza. Tuscany was to be given to France, and the king of Spain to be declared protector of the three states, erected out of Portugal; the Spanish monarch was also to assume, after the maritime peace should be concluded, the title of emperor of both Americas. In conformity with this treaty, Tuscany was given up to Napoleon in 1807, and afterwards incorporated with France; and Marshal Junot, duke of Braganza, entered Lisbon on the 30th of November, after the royal family had embarked with their treasures, and a few of the principal nobility, in a British fleet, for the Brazils. But, in 1808, the Spanish nobility, tired of the government of the prince of peace, formed a plot to raise Ferdinand VII. to the throne, and free their country from foreign influence. It required no great effort to induce Charles to resign in favour of his son; but this was an arrangement to which Napoleon would not consent; and both father and son now became pensioners of the French conqueror, who invested his brother Joseph, at that time king of Naples, with the sovereignty of Spain and India. The people now rose to vindicate their rights, and that struggle commenced in which patriotic Spaniards were so warmly and successfully supported by the British under Wellington, during the long and arduous military operations which in England are known as the "Peninsular war." The war in Spain appeared to give Austria a new and favourable opportunity for attempting the re-establishment of her former influence in Germany. The emperor Francis accordingly declared war against France, and sent his armies into Bavaria, Italy, and the dukedom of Warsaw. But the rapid measures of Napoleon baffled Austrian calculations; and, collecting a large army, he defeated the archduke Louis so severely at Eckmuhl and Ratisbon, on the 22d and 23d of April, that he was compelled to cross the Danube. Vienna was thus opened to the conquerors, and Napoleon took possession of that capital. The archduke

Charles was, however, undismayed; he attacked the French in their position at Aspern, on the 21st of May, and the battle continuing through the next day, Napoleon was compelled to retreat into the isle of Loban, where his army was placed in a situation of great jeopardy, the flood having carried away the bridge that connected the island in the middle of the river with the right bank of the Danube; and two months elapsed before he was able to repair the disasters of the battle, and again transport his army across the river. Then followed the great battle of Wagram, which was fought on the 5th and 6th of July; and in this desperate conflict the loss of the Austrians was so great, that they immediately sought an armistice of the French emperor, which led to the peace of Vienna, signed on the 14th of October, 1809. By this peace Austria was obliged to resign territories containing three millions of subjects. Saltzburg, Berchtolsgaden, &c., were given to Bavaria; all western and part of eastern Gallicia, with the town of Cracow, were united to the dukedom of Warsaw; and other provinces, with part of the kingdom of Italy, were destined to form the new state of the Illyrian provinces; while Austria was absolutely cut off from all communication with the sea, by the loss of her ports on the Adriatic. The Tyrolese, who had been transferred to the king of Bavaria by the treaty of Presburg, finding that their ancient immunities and privileges had been violated, and that they were crushed by severe taxation, seized the opportunity of the Austrian war to raise the standard of revolt; and in their early operations they expelled the Bavarians from the principal towns. A French army entered the country and laid it waste with fire and sword; but the Tyrolese, animated by a heroic peasant named Hofer, expelled the invaders once more, and secured a brief interval of tranquillity. The results of the battle of Wagram, however, gave the French and Bavarian forces an opportunity of overwhelming them; they penetrated their mountain fastnesses, desolated the land, executed the leading patriots as rebels, and the land was again subjected to the tyranny of Maximilian Joseph, the puppet of Napoleon. Several efforts were simultaneously made in Germany to shake off the French yoke; but after the overthrow of the Austrians there were no longer any hopes for them, and the emperor of the French exercised an almost unlimited power over the northern part of continental Europe. During Napoleon's residence at Vienna, he abolished the temporal power of the pope, and united the remaining territories of the states of the church with France, to which he had previously united Piedmont, Liguria, Tuscany, and Parma, besides Savoy and Nice. A pension was assigned to his holiness, and the city of Rome declared an imperial and free city. The pope was conducted to Fontainebleau, where Napoleon concluded a second concordat with him, in which, though the pope did not resume his temporal jurisdiction, he obtained the right to keep ambassadors at foreign courts, to receive ambassadors, and to appoint to certain bishoprics. One of the consequences of the peace of Vienna was the dissolution of the marriage between Napoleon and Josephine, which took place in December, 1809; and his second marriage with the archduchess Maria Louisa, daughter of the emperor of Austria, in April, 1810. When Napoleon declared the papal territory a province of France, and Rome a city of the empire, he determined that the heir-apparent of France should bear the title of king of Rome, and that the emperor of France should be crowned in Rome within the first three years of his government. The firmness with which he was opposed in Spain, the perseverance of Great Britain in maintaining the orders in council, to counteract the decrees of Berlin and Milan, and the daily increasing prospect of an approaching war in the North, where longer submission to the arbitrary mandates of Napoleon was refused, did not augur favourably for the future stability of his vast power. The British also carried on an important commerce with Russia, through

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Gottenburg and the ports of the Baltic, of which complaint was made to the courts of Stockholm and Petersburg. The commercial policy of Russia in 1810 and 1811, and its disapprobation of the treatment of the duke of Oldenburg (a near relation to the emperor Alexander), had excited the distrust of Napoleon; and he spoke the language of offended confidence in remonstrating with "his brother the emperor." At length Russia and Sweden made common cause with Great Britain in opposing Napoleon's darling "continental system;" while the latter arrayed under his banners the military strength of western and southern Europe, and, trusting to the vast number of his victorious legions, he crossed the Niemen, and directed his march to the capital of Lithuania. As the French advanced the Russians retired, wasting the country in their retreat. Napoleon then with his main body marched upon Moscow, while a large division of his forces menaced the road to St. Petersburg. But the main force of the invaders advanced to Smolensko, which was justly regarded as the bulwark of Moscow. This strongly fortified position was taken by storm on the 17th of August, after a brief but bloody struggle, the Russian general, Barclay de Tolly, firing the town on his retreat. But Moscow was not to be abandoned without another effort. Kutusoff, who now assumed the command of the Russians, fixed upon a position near the village of Borodino, and there firmly awaited the invading host. Nearly seventy thousand men fell in this furious and sanguinary conflict; and as the French were joined by new reinforcements after the battle, Napoleon entered Moscow, and took up his residence in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the czars. The citizens, however, under the direction, or with the sanction, of the governor, Rostopchin, not only determined to abandon their beloved metropolis, but to consign it to the flames; and scarcely had the French troops congratulated themselves on having secured winter-quarters in that cold and inhospitable region, ere the conflagration burst forth in every direction, and notwithstanding every device was tried to subdue the flames, they ceased not until more than three-fourths of the city was a mass of smoking embers. In this unexpected and embarassing position, Napoleon gave orders for a retreat. All the horrors that the imagination can conceive were now felt by the hapless fugitives, who so lately were the boasted conquerors of southern Europe. The winter had set in unusually early, and brave as the French soldiers were, the climate of Russia was an enemy too powerful for them to contend with. Thousands upon thousands perished with cold and hunger, and an immense number fell beneath the swords of their relentless pursuers, who, maddened by the recollection that their hearths and homes had been polluted by these invaders, and that their ancient city lay smouldering in the dust, heeded not their cries for mercy. But why should we repeat the tale of horrors? Suffice it to say, that the wreck of this mighty army retreated through Prussia and Poland, into Saxony, while Napoleon hastened to Paris with all the speed that post-horses could effect.

Napoleon appealed to the senate for men, money, and other munitions of war, and his appeal was promptly responded to. Notwithstanding his recent reverses, he felt that he still possessed the confidence of the French nation; and a largè conscription was ordered to supply the losses of the late campaign; as soon, therefore, as the new levies were organized, he hastened to the north; and, to the astonishment of all Europe, the army under his command was numerically superior to those of his adversaries. The public voice in Prussia loudly demanded war with France, and the Prussian monarch took courage to assert his independence and enter into alliance with Alexander. The armies of these newly-united powers sustained a considerable loss at Lutzen on the 2d of May, and at Bautzen on the 21st and 22d, in engagements with the French; but neither battle was

decisive; and Napoleon, alarmed by the magnitude of his losses, and the obstinacy of his enemies, consented to an armistice. During the truce the British government encouraged the allies by large subsidies; but what was of most consequence, the emperor of Austria, who had never cordially consented to an alliance with his son-in-law, now abandoned his cause, and took an active part in the confederation against him. Napoleon established his head-quarters at Dresden, and commenced a series of operations against his several foes, which at first were successful; but the tide of fortune turned; different divisions of his army were successively defeated, and he collected his scattered forces for one tremendous effort, which was to decide the fate of Europe. Retiring to Leipsic, he there made a stand, and under the walls of that ancient city he sustained a terrible defeat, Oct. 18, the Saxon troops in his service having deserted in a body to the allies during the engagement. Compelled to evacuate Leipsic, he retreated upon the Rhine, followed by the allied troops, and after a severe struggle at Hanau, Oct. 30, in which the Bavarians, under the command of General Wrede, took a decisive part against the French, they were defeated, and multitudes were made prisoners. Bernadotte undertook the task of expelling the French from Saxony. The sovereign governments in the kingdom of Westphalia, the grand dukedom of Frankfort and Berg, and the countries of the princes of Isenburg and Vonder-Leyen, were now overturned; the elector of Hesse-Cassel, the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttel, and the duke of Oldenburg, returned to their own country; the Hanoverians again acknowledged their old government, and the Russian administration was re-introduced into the provinces between the Rhine and the Elbe. Considerable masses of troops, partly volunteers, and partly drafted from the Prussian militia, followed the Austrians, Russians, and Prussians across the Rhine. The flame of independence spread to Holland, and the hereditary claims of the house of Orange were acknowledged.

A. D. 1814.—While the allies were thus effecting the humiliation of Napoleon, Wellington advanced slowly towards Bayonne. As he advanced, the old partisans of the Bourbons began to revive, the exiled family was proclaimed, and the white flag floated on the walls of Bordeaux. Napoleon had the advantage over Blucher at Brienne on the 29th of January, but was forced to retreat at La Rochière, where the allies had concentrated their forces. He now retired between the Loire and the Marne, with the view of covering Paris; and it was not without difficulty that Blucher succeeded in penetrating the French line. But the order of march was still "forward! forward!" On the 31st of March, 1814, the allied troops entered Paris, and Alexander declared, in the name of the allied sovereigns, that they would not negotiate with Napoleon Bonaparte, nor with any of his family; that they acknowledged the right of France only to the territory embraced within its ancient limits under its kings; and, finally, that they would acknowledge and guaranty the government which the French nation should adopt. They therefore invited the senate to establish a provisory government for the administration of the country and the preparation of a constitution. Accordingly, the senate assembled, April 1, under the able presidency of Talleyrand, (a man ever skilful in taking advantage of circumstances), whom, with four other members, they charged with the provisory government. On the next day it declared that Napoleon and his family had forfeited the throne of France. The legislative body ratified this decree, and the recall of Louis XVIII. to the throne of France was soon after made known. Meanwhile, April 11, Napoleon had resigned the crown conditionally in favour of his son, at Fontainebleau; and a treaty was concluded the same day, ceding to him the island of Elba.

Wearied with continual war, France hailed the return of peace with ac-

clamations of joy and hope. The senators, in conjunction with some others, formed a chamber of peers. At the same time was convened the legislative body of the empire, which formed the chamber of deputies; and Louis, who had declared his determination to adopt a liberal constitution, granted the charter, which, notwithstanding omissions and imperfections, contained guaranties for liberty. The new constitutional charter was presented to the nation by the king on the 4th of June. It contained the principles of a limited monarchy. The person of the king was declared to be inviolable; the legislative power was vested in him in conjunction with the two chambers. The chamber of deputies was to be composed of deputies chosen by the electoral colleges, one fifth part to be renewed yearly; to be eligible as a deputy, it was necessary to be forty years old, and pay 1000 francs of direct taxes. On the 4th of May Louis created the new ministry, and on the 3d of August a new council of state. The royal orders of the Holy Ghost, of military merit, the order of St. Louis, and that of St. Michael, were revived; the legion of honour received a new decoration (the portrait of Henry IV.), and a new organization, and the order of the silver lily was founded. There were still, however, many prejudices in favour of the abdicated emperor to overcome, and many restless spirits to soothe. It was soon perceived that a great difference of opinion prevailed among the members of the royal family and among the ministers. The honours conferred on the old nobility and the emigrants who had returned with the court, excited great discontent; and the national pride was offended by the public declaration of the king, that he owed his crown to the prince-regent of Great Britain. The army, so long used to war and the rewards which awaited a successful career, was in a state of the highest irritation; the remembrance of him by whom they had so often been led to victory was yet fresh, when they saw their corps dissolved, their dotations, their pay, and their pensions diminished, their importance and their influence destroyed, and they themselves compelled to change their favourite badges for others, on which they had formerly trampled. The holders of the national domains feared to lose them. The people were discontented with the burden of the taxes, the alleviation of which had been promised to them. In this state of public feeling nothing could be more fatal for the royal government than the sudden reappearance of Napoleon on the coast of France, the 1st of March, 1815. These circumstances explain why, without the existence of an actual conspiracy in favour of Napoleon, the measures taken to oppose his progress were unsuccessful; why the army and a great part of the nation declared for him; and why, after a march of eighteen days, which resembled a triumph, he was able to enter Paris without shedding a drop of blood.

The king and his adherents left the country. Napoleon immediately annulled most of the royal ordinances, dissolved the two chambers, and named a new ministry. He declared that he should content himself with the limits of France, as settled by the peace of Paris, and that he would establish his government on liberal principles. But he could not satisfy the expectations of the different parties, much less could he avert the danger of a war with Europe. As soon as the news of Napoleon's landing in France was known at Vienna, the ministers of all the allied powers who were assembled in congress there, denounced him as the enemy and the disturber of the repose of the world, and declared that the powers were firmly resolved to employ all means, and unite all their efforts, to maintain the treaty of Paris. For this purpose, Austria, Russia, Britian, and Prussia concluded a new treaty, on the basis of that of March 1st, 1814, whereby each power agreed to bring 150,000 men into the field against Napoleon, who, on his part, was indefatigable in making preparations for war. At the same time, April 22, he published the additional

act to the constitutions of the empire, and summoned the meeting of the *Champ de Mai*, which accepted that act, June 1. As we gave in the "History of England," a succinct account of the operations of the French and allied armies, which ended in the battle of Waterloo, as also the deportation of Napoleon to St. Helena, and the events which immediately followed the second restoration of Louis XVIII., we shall not repeat them in this place, but carry on our narrative to the period when the two chambers passed the law of amnesty proposed by the king, by which all those who had voted for the death of Louis XVI.,.or had accepted offices from Napoleon, during the "hundred days," were forever banished from the kingdom. With the evacuation of the French territory by foreign troops, which was determined on by the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, the 9th of October, 1818, and accomplished in the course of the same year, was connected the payment of the expenses of the war, and of the individual claims of the subjects of foreign powers on the French government and nation. Here French diplomacy was successful, and a small proportion of the real claims was accepted as a liquidation. France was admitted into alliance with the great European powers, and the French cabinet entered deeply into the continental system. But the return of France to the *ancien regime*, was far from satisfactory to the bulk of the people; and the government was kept in a continual state of oscillation, now a set of ultra-royalists, and now the liberal party, directing the national councils. Under these circumstances much acrimonious discussion took place in the chambers, and the sessions of 1819 and 1820 were agitated by the most violent conflicts. The parties attacked each other with reciprocal accusations, and, in February, 1820, the assassination of the duke of Berri, by Louvel (who, to the last moment of his life, expressed his fierce hatred of the whole Bourbon race) drew forth the most virulent accusations from the extreme right. The minister Decazes resigned, and the duke of Richelieu succeeded him. A new law of election was carried, amid the most violent opposition on the part of the *doctrinaires* (members who defended a consistent maintenance of the principles of the *charte*) and the liberals. Many officers of government, by their writings, and in their places as deputies, opposed the new system; so that, with every new ministry, there were numerous dismissions, and many names were even erased from the army rolls for political opinions. It was evident, indeed, that conspirators were employed to excite the troops to a revolt, and some were tried, found guilty, and suffered the penalty due to treason.

The king opened the session of 1823 with a speech announcing the march of 100,000 French troops to Spain. He was alarmed for the safety of France by the revolutionary movements of his neighbours; and this army, which was commanded by the duke of Angoulême, was sent expressly to restore the royal authority. The invaders encountered no effective opposition; the cortes fled before them to Cadiz; and when King Ferdinand approached that city, they permitted him to resume his despotic sway. During the last few years of the reign of Louis XVIII., he was much enfeebled by disease, and, consequently, unable to act with the energy necessary for establishing a firm and, at the same time, a conciliatory government. He died in September, 1824, nine years subsequent to his restoration.

On the accession of Charles X., brother of the deceased king he declared his intention of confirming the charter, appointed the dauphin (duke of Angoulême) as member of the ministerial council, and suppressed the censorship of the public journals. Villèle was his prime minister. In May, 1826, the splendid coronation of Charles took place at Rheims, according to ancient custom, with the addition, however, of the oath of the king to govern according to the charter.

On Lafayette's return from America in 1825, the citizens of Havre having received him with demonstrations of joy, the government manifested their resentment by ordering out the *gen d'armes*, who charged the multitude with drawn sabres. The influence of the jesuits was seen in the prosecution of the *Constitutionnel* and *Courrier Francais*, two of the best liberal journals. Villèle, who had discernment enough to see to what this fanaticism would lead, and who was, at the same time, obnoxious to the liberals, on account of his anti-constitutional principles, and his operations in the funds, became less secure. The parties assumed a more hostile attitude towards each other. The royalists and the supporters of the jesuits became more open in the expression of their real sentiments; the liberals became stronger and bolder; and the government assumed a tone ill calculated to conciliate its avowed opponents. On the opening of the session, Dec. 12, 1826, Damas, minister of foreign affairs, informed the chamber that all the continental powers had endeavoured to prevent the interference of Spain in the affairs of Portugal; that France had co-operated with them, had withdrawn her ambassador from Madrid, and had entered into arrangements with England to leave Portugal and Spain to settle their affairs in their own way. Several unpopular measures brought forward by the ministers, were after violent discussions rejected, among which was a proposed law, confirming the liberty of the press. The withdrawal of this by an ordinance was regarded as a popular triumph. This event was followed by the disbanding of the national guards of Paris, a body of 45,000 men, who, at a review at the Champ de Mars, had joined the cries of hatred against the ministry. This was a highly unpopular measure; and Lafitte, Benjamin Constant, and some other members, talked of impeaching the ministers; but Villèle took credit to himself for having ventured upon a step which he knew to be unpopular, but considered necessary. Every proceeding, however, served to show that the ministerial party was gradually losing ground, and that no trifling concessions to their opponents would avail. While Charles was much more resolutely opposed to the prevalence of democratic principles than his brother, and yielded to the councils of priests who were intent on the restoration of the church to the power it possessed some centuries before, the people were taught to believe, and actually dreaded, that a plot was forming to deprive them of the constitutional privileges which they had gained after so long a struggle. Thus the nation became alienated from the court, and the court from the nation; a new ministry was forced upon the king by the popular party, but they had neither the ability nor influence necessary for steering a safe course between the extremes of royal prerogative on one side, and popular encroachment on the other; the consequence was that both parties treated them as drivellers and *incapables*. In this state of feeling, Charles suddenly dismissed them, and entrusted the formation of a new cabinet to Prince Polignac, when, on August 9, 1839, the following appointments were announced: Prince Polignac, minister of foreign affairs; M. Courvoisier, keeper of the seals and minister of justice; Count Bourmont, minister of war; Count de Bourdonaye, minister of the interior; Baron de Montbel, minister of ecclesiastical affairs and public instruction; and Count Chabrol de Crousol, minister of finance. To these was afterwards added M. d'Haussey, minister of marine and the colonies, in lieu of Admiral Count Rigny, who declined the offered portfolio. The ministry was ultra-royalist; and nothing could convince the democrats of the rectitude of the intentions of either Charles or his ministers. And when it was seen that the king not only favoured the jesuits and monastic orders, but that he showed a marked dislike to those who had acquired eminence in the revolution, or under Napoleon, and that the rigid court-etiquette of former days was revived, they were ready to believe the most absurd rumours of his intended designs, not merely to crush the rising spirit of lib-

erty, but to rule over France with the most absolute despotism. The nobles had ceased in France to form an aristocracy. Their great numbers and little wealth, the mixture of political elements they presented, &c., had left the noblesse entirely without consequence, and it was apparent from the first that neither the king nor Polignac comprehended the wishes or wants of the people, but trusted that something might arise to turn the popular current in their favour.

A. D. 1830.—Though they knew not the signs of the times, they did not forget that Frenchmen were notorious for their love of military glory. War was therefore declared against Algiers, on account of insults some time before offered to the French flag, and also to resent a personal indignity committed on the French consul by the dey, who struck him while at a public audience. An armament was accordingly prepared with extraordinary care, and the success which attended it corresponded with the exertions made to ensure it. On the 10th of May, the army, consisting of 37,577 infantry and 4000 horse, embarked at Toulon, and the fleet, consisting of ninety-seven vessels, of which eleven were ships of the line and twenty-four frigates, set sail. June 14, the army began to disembark at Sidi Ferrajh, on the coast of Africa. The city of Algiers was taken after a slight resistance, the dey was sent prisoner to Italy, and his vast treasures remained at the disposal of the conquerors. The maritime powers of Europe were naturally jealous at the establishment of French garrisons and colonies in northern Africa; and to allay their suspicions, it was declared that the occupation of Algiers would be merely temporary: but the French nation became so infatuated with their conquest, that to the present hour Algeria is looked upon by them as a most important acquisition, although it causes an enormous annual waste of blood and treasure, without conferring advantage either on Africa or on France. On the 17th of May appeared the royal ordinance dissolving the chambers; at the same time, new elections were ordered, and the two chambers convoked for August 3d. The *Moniteur* of June 15th contained a proclamation of the king, in which he called upon all Frenchmen to do their duty in the colleges, to rely upon his constitutional intentions, &c. In this proclamation are these remarkable words: "Electors, hasten to your colleges. Let no reprehensible negligence deprive them of your presence! Let one sentiment animate you all; let one standard be your rallying point! It is your king who demands this of you, it is a father who calls upon you. Fulfil your duties. I will take care to fulfil mine." Though the success of the army in Algiers became known during the electoral struggle, and though all parties exulted in the success of the French arms, the ministry appeared to gain no popularity by it. All the returns of the new elections indicated a strong majority against the ministry, so that, in the beginning of July, men spoke of a change in the administration as a natural consequence. A blind infatuation seems to have possessed Polignac and his colleagues. They preferred to attack the charter, violate the social compact, and expose France to a civil war, rather than yield. During this time the king and queen of Naples visited Paris, and many festivals took place, strongly in contrast with the state of political affairs. The king also ordered *Te Deum* to be sung in all the churches of the kingdom for the victory of his army in Africa, the news of which reached Paris four days after the capture of Algiers. Had Charles X. dismissed his obnoxious ministers, and formed a cabinet of moderate men, the crisis would, in all probability, have passed over without danger. Instead of which, the ministers made a report to the king (July 26), setting forth at length the dangers of a free press, and calling upon him to suspend the liberty of the press. "The state," they said, "is in danger, and your majesty has the right to provide for its safety. No government can stand, if it has not the right to provide for its own safety; besides, the 8th article of the char-

ter only gives every Frenchman the right of publishing his own opinions, but not, as the journals do, the opinions of others; the charter does not expressly allow journals and the liberty of the press. The journals misrepresent the best intentions of the government; and the liberty of the press produces the very contrary of publicity, because ill-intentioned writers misconstrue everything, and the public never knows the truth." This report was accompanied by three ordinances, which virtually subverted the constitutional privileges of the charter. The first dissolved the newly-elected chamber of deputies before it assembled; the second changed the law of elections, and disfranchised the great body of electors; and the third subjected the press to new and severe restrictions which would have completely annihilated its liberties. Astonishment and indignation seized the people of Paris, but no tumult occurred; yet while the ministers were congratulating themselves on the apparent tranquillity of the citizens, the latter had been actively employed in summoning the deputies of their party within reach, or in concerting measures for a vigorous resistance. The principal journalists prepared and printed a spirited protest against the restrictions on the press, declaring their right to publish as usual, and enforcing that right upon the ground that property in a journal differed in no respect from any other kind of property, and that it could only be attacked by regular judicial proceedings for a breach of the law. The liberal papers, notwithstanding, were all suppressed, and only those which were known to be favourable to the government allowed to appear.

It was impossible that this state of things could exist. The deputies representing the electors of the city, and some from other parts of the kingdom who were then in Paris, in all thirty-two, assembled at the house of the deputy, M. Lafitte, the banker, to take the subject into serious consideration, and decide on some immediate course of action. A number of constitutional peers also met at the Duc de Choiseul's. At each of these meetings it was resolved not to submit. The peers signed a protest, and sent it by a deputation to the king, who refused to receive it. The rejection strengthened the resolution of the deputies, and forty couriers were sent with dispatches to towns and villages within a hundred miles of the metropolis, representing the outrageous conduct of government, and urging the inhabitants to co-operate with the Parisians in a determined stand for the liberties of France. In the meantime the government was on the alert, and sent a general officer to Grenelle and another to Angers, for military purposes. The military command of Paris was entrusted to Marshal Marmont, duke of Ragusa. Troops were ordered in from the barracks within fifty miles around; and the guards in the city were doubled. Towards the evening, bodies of *gendarmerie* were stationed about the Bourse and on the Boulevards. In consequence of the bank refusing to discount bills, the manufacturers perceived it had not confidence in the government, and they immediately discharged their workmen. These artizans congregated in the different streets and reported what had happened to the listening crowds. An ordinance was now issued by the prefect of police, declaring, among other things of a restrictive kind, that "Every individual keeping a reading-room, coffee-house, &c., who shall give to be read journals, or other writings, printed contrary to the ordinance of the king of the 25th inst. relative to the press, shall be prosecuted as guilty of the misdemeanours which these journals or writings may constitute, and his establishment shall be provisionally closed." This ordinance showed a great ignorance of character; for a newspaper with a Frenchman's coffee is rendered by habit almost as indispensable as his morning's meal. Nevertheless, the officers of police cleared the coffee-houses, reading-rooms, &c. and shut them up. By their inteference all the theatres were closed. A sullen discontent was seen in every countenance, and occasionally was heard the cry of *Vive la*

charte; yet during all this time, it would seem, the ministers had no idea of the mischief that was brooding.

On Tuesday the 27th, in the forenoon, the police and a large force of gens d'armes, mounted and on foot, appeared before the office of the *Nationnel*, a popular journal. They found the door fast closed, and, being refused entrance, broke in, seized the types, and carried the editor to prison. They then proceeded to the office of the *Temps*, another popular newspaper, which, though the door-way was barricaded, and a determined resistance was offered by the printers, they forced, and seized the printed papers and types. This was the signal for a general resistance to the ordinances. All work was now abandoned, every manufactory was closed, and detachments of artizans with large sticks traversed the streets. Troops of gens d'armes patrolled the streets at full gallop to disperse the accumulating crowds. The people were silent, and at an early hour the shops throughout Paris were closed. Troops of the royal guard and soldiers of the line came pouring in. The people looked sullen and determined. The chief points of rendezvous were the Palais Royal, the Palais de Justice, and the Bourse. There were simultaneous cries of "*Vive la charte!*" "Down with the absolute king!" but no conversation, no exchange of words with each other. The king was at the Tuilleries. In the Place du Carousel there were stationed several thousands of the military, with a great number of cannon. At the Vendôme a strong guard of infantry was stationed around the column, to guard the ensigns of royalty on it from being defaced; and there were crowds of people upon the spot, who menaced the troops. Several smart skirmishes between the citizens and the soldiers occurred in the evening, in which the latter were generally successful, so that Marmont sent a note to the king, congratulating him on the suppression of the riots. But when night closed in, the citizens destroyed every lamp, thus securing the protection of darkness for their preparations to renew the struggle in the morning. On Wednesday, at an early hour, all Paris was in arms; the shops were closely shut, and the windows fastened and barred, as if the inhabitants fully anticipated an approaching calamity. The tocsin sounded, and the people flocked in from the fauxbourgs and different quarters of the city. The press had been in active operation during the night; handbills were profusely distributed, containing vehement philippics against Charles and his ministers, and summoning every man to arm for his country, and to aid in ejecting the Bourbons. Nor had the citizens in general been idle during that eventful night; they were ready and organised for a decisive contest; they were in possession of the arsenal and powder magazine; they had procured arms from the shops of the gunsmiths and the police stations; they had thrown up rude barricades across the principal streets to prevent the attacks of cavalry, and had selected leaders competent to direct their exertions. A red flag was hoisted on several buildings, amid the shouts of the people. Tri-coloured flags were promenaded in the streets, and tri-coloured cockades and breast-knots were worn by all classes. All Paris, in short, was in a state of insurrection, and every movement of the people portended a terrible conflict. A deputation of the most influential men in Paris waited upon Marshal Marmont, and represented to him the deplorable state of the capital; stating, at the same time, that they made him personally responsible, in the name of the assembled deputies of France, for its present alarming situation, and for the fatal consequences which must inevitably ensue. The marshal replied, "The honour of a soldier is obedience; but, gentlemen," said he, "what are the conditions you propose?" To this M. Lafitte made answer—"The revocation of the illegal ordinances on the 25th of July, the dismissal of the ministers, and the convocations of the chambers on the 3d of August." The marshal replied, that though as a citizen he might even participate in

the opinions of the deputies, as a soldier he had only to carry his orders into execution; but that if they wished to have a conference with M. de Polignac, he was close at hand, and he would go and ask him if he would receive them. A quarter of an hour passed, when the marshal returned with his manner much changed, and told the deputies that M. de Polignac had declared to him that the conditions proposed rendered any conference useless. "We have then civil war," said M. Lafitte. The marshal bowed, and the deputies retired. As soon as Polignac's answer was made known, all the stifled feelings of resentment burst forth, and the people rushed eagerly forward to oppose the troops wherever a favourable opportunity presented itself. With a disinclination to take any decisive steps, it was noon before Marshal Marmont determined to clear the streets by military force; and he then unwisely divided his troops into four columns, which he sent in different directions, thereby destroying the great advantage they possessed in being able to act in concert. The drums of the national guards soon beat "to arms!" and the struggle began in earnest. Every step taken by the columns was marked by a series of murderous conflicts; they were assailed by musketry from the barricades, from the windows and tops of houses, from the corners of streets, and from the narrow alleys and passages which abound in Paris. The hottest engagement seems to have been in the Rue St. Honoré, opposite the Palais Royal, where the military were assembled in great force, and the people resisted them with desperate determination. At the Place de Gréve they fiercely contended with the Swiss guards, and compelled them to retreat with great loss. In the Rue Montmartre an attack was made by the duke of Ragusa in person; but the obstacles which everywhere presented themselves to the troops were so formidable, and the disinclination of the troops of the line to engage with the citizens so apparent, that the insurgents were enabled to seize many important posts; and when evening closed, the troops, defeated in every direction, returned to their barracks, weary, hungry, and dispirited; for while they had been the whole day without food, every family in Paris vied with each other in supplying their fellow citizens with refreshment. As soon as the firing ceased, the people made preparations for the next day by strengthening the barricades and increasing their number. Excellent materials were at hand in the paving stones, which were dug up and piled across the street in walls breast high, and four or five feet thick, about fifty paces distant from each other. Besides these defences, hundreds of fine trees were cut down for blockades; in short, nothing was left undone that ingenuity could devise, or perseverance accomplish, towards making an energetic and determined stand against the military on the morrow.

Thursday morning had scarcely dawned when the tocsin sounded "To arms!" and the people began to assemble rapidly and in great crowds. The military, whose guard-house had been destroyed, were chiefly quartered at the Louvre and the Tuilleries, the Swiss and royal guards being posted in the houses of the Rue St. Honoré and the adjacent streets. At the same time the students of the polytechnic school joined the citizens nearly to a man; they then separated, proceeding singly to different parts to take the command of the people, and nobly repaid the confidence that was reposed in them, by the coolness and courage they displayed. The garden of the Tuilleries was closed. In the Place du Carousel were three squadrons of lancers of the garde royale, a battalion of the 3d regiment of the guards, and six pieces of cannon. The royal guards had hardly made themselves masters of the Hotel de Ville, when they were assailed on all sides with a shower of bullets from the windows of the houses of the Place de Grêve and the streets abutting on the quay. The royal guards resisted vigorously, but were ultimately compelled to retreat along the quay, their firing by files and platoons succeeding each other with

astonishing rapidity. They were soon joined by fresh troops, including one hundred cuirassiers of the guard, and four pieces of artillery, each of them escorted by a dozen artillerymen on horseback. With this reinforcement they again advanced on the Hotel de Ville, and a frightful firing began on all sides. The artillery debouching from the quay, and their pieces charged with canister shot, swept the Place de Grêve in a terrible manner. They succeeded in driving the citizens into the Rues de Matriot and du Mouton, and entered for the second time that day into their position at the Hotel de Ville; but their possession of it did not continue long, for they were soon again attacked with a perseverance and courage that was almost irresistible.

On the 29th General Lafayette was appointed commander-in-chief of the national guards by the liberal deputies, and was received with enthusiasm by the Parisians. A youth of twenty years of age belonging to the polytechnic school, led an attack on the Louvre, from which the Swiss guards retreated to the Tuilleries. This place was also taken by the people, with one of these youths at their head. The Luxembourg had already fallen into their hands. The young men of this school rendered the greatest service to the cause of the nation, and afterwards declined the medals granted to them, and also the rank of lieutenant, offered to each, in case he entered the army. Many of the soldiers solemnly vowed they would not continue to act against the people; others were disheartened and discomfited; and two whole regiments went over in a body to the side of the Parisians. At length, all the royal troops left the capital by the way of the Champs Elysées, and in their retreat were fired upon by the people. At night the city was partially illuminated, and perfect tranquillity prevailed, while strong patrols silently paraded the streets, and passed gently from barricade to barricade. A deputation from Charles X. at St. Cloud, arrived at the Hotel de Ville early in the morning. At eleven o'clock, the deputies and peers then in Paris assembled in their respective halls, and established regular communications with each other. The duke de Mortemart was introduced to the chamber of deputies, and delivered four ordinances signed the previous day by the king. One of them recalled the fatal ordinance of the 25th; another convoked the chambers on the 3d; the third appointed the duke de Mortemart president of the council; and the fourth appointed Count Gerard minister of war, and M. Casimir-Perier minister of finance. The reading of these ordinances was listened to with the greatest attention. But at the termination no observation was made—the most profound silence was for a time observed—and then the deputies passed to other business. The manner in which the duke and his communications were received by the deputies was an announcement that Charles X. had ceased to reign.

On the 31st of July the deputies published a proclamation, declaring that they had invited the duke of Orleans to become lieutenant-general of the kingdom. At noon of the same day, Louis Philippe d'Orleans issued a proclamation, declaring that he had hastened to Paris, wearing the "glorious colours" of France, to accept the invitation of the assembled deputies to become lieutenant-general of the kingdom. A proclamation of the same date appointed provisional commissaries for different departments of government. The king, with his family, had fled to St. Cloud They now proceeded to Rambouillet, a small place six leagues w. s. w. of Versailles. Three commissioners were sent from Paris to treat with him; who, on their return, informed the authorities, that the king wished to leave France by way of Cherbourg; to restore the crown jewels, which he had taken from Paris, &c. These concessions were produced by the advance of the national guard towards Rambouillet. On the morning of August 2, the abdication of Charles X. and the dauphin, Louis Antoine, was placed in the hands of the lieutenant-general; the abdication, however, was

made in favour of the duke of Bordeaux. A letter of the king, bearing that date, appointed the duke of Orleans lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and ordered him to proclaim the duke of Bordeaux king, under the title of Henry V.

The abdication of Charles was announced to the peers and the deputies by the lieutenant-general on the 3d of August; and Casimir-Perier was at the same time chosen president of the chamber. On the 6th, the chamber of deputies declared the throne of France vacant, *de jure* and *de facto*, and discussed the provisions of the charter. On the 7th, new changes were adopted in it; and it was voted to invite the duke of Orleans to become king of the French, on condition of his accepting these changes. On the 8th, the chamber went in a body to the duke, and offered him the crown, which he accepted; and on the 9th, he took the prescribed constitutional oath. The spirit of order manifested by the people during the struggles in Paris, which prevented all outrage and plundering, was still further shown in the unmolested retreat of Charles X., who took passage for England in two American vessels. On arriving he was received merely as a private person. The revolution of July, 1830, thus drove one dynasty from the throne of France, and seated another in its place. In theory, it sanctioned the doctrine of the sovereignty of the people, and dealt a fatal blow to the ancient notion of passive obedience; but in practice, it disappointed the "movement party," who looked to see a monarchy shorn of its prerogatives and surrounded by republican institutions.

Though this extraordinary revolution had been effected with such comparative ease, justice could hardly be considered as complete without the trial of those responsible officers of government who had originated, or at least sanctioned, this war on the liberties of France. In the course of the month, four of the ex-ministers, Peyronnet, Guernon de Ranville, Chantelauze, and Polignac, were arrested, tried by their peers, and being found guilty, were sentenced to imprisonment for life. While the trial was going on, the Luxembourg was surrounded by a clamorous mob, demanding the death of the prisoners, and threatening vengeance in case the sentence was not satisfactory. As the trial proceeded, and it began to be suspected that a capital sentence would not be pronounced, the violence of the multitude increased, and everything seemed to menace a new insurrection. The troops and national guards were kept under arms by night, and bivouacked in the public places. The whole personal influence of the king and of Lafayette was also employed to soothe the populace; still the number and clamour of the mob became so alarming, that it was determined to remove the prisoners secretly to Vincennes before sentence was pronounced; and the *ruse* succeeded.

In the beginning of the year 1831, the public mind continued to be agitated by conspiracies of Carlists, or partisans of the exiled family. Nor were there wanting, on the other hand, republicans and Bonapartists to fan the flame of insurrection both in the capital and in the provinces. In the midst of this anarchy, the king of the French, with that prudential foresight and conciliatory disposition which have characterised most of his movements, determined on a tour through his domnions; one of his objects, doubtless, having been to attach to his person, by so popular a course, a large portion of his subjects who might otherwise feel disposed to join the disaffected. In allusion to the feeling of republicanism, Dr. Taylor forcibly says: "When any of the apostles of sedition were brought to trial, they openly maintained their revolutionary doctrines; treated the king with derision; inveighed against the existing institutions of the country; entered into violent altercations with the public persecutor; menaced the juries and insulted the judges. The very extravagance of this evil at length worked out a remedy; the bombast of the republicans was carried to such an excess of absurdity, that it became ridiculous; the republicans were dis-

armed when they found that the nonsense of their inflated speeches produced not intimidation, but laughter. Moderate men took courage; the middle classes, to whose prosperity peace abroad and tranquility at home were essentially necessary, rallied round the monarchy, and the republicans were forced to remain silent, until some new excitement of the public mind would afford an opportunity for disseminating mischievous falsehoods."

Beyond the period to which we have brought this history, nothing of any moment has occured in France, that is not incidentally mentioned in the latter part of the history of England. Whether Louis Philippe is apprehensive that the peace of the country will not be of long duration, or whether he is anxious to prevent the citizens of Paris from showing another specimen of their courage, if by any chance they should be brought into collision with the military—or whether it be to provide equally against either contingency—is more than we will venture to offer an opinion on; but we must not close our sketch without stating that he is at present engaged in fortifying Paris in a manner calculated to afford great facilities to the troops in either emergency. These works were begun in September, 1840, and are not yet finished. When complete, the city and suburbs of Paris will be enclosed with a thick, high wall, defended by bastions and moats in various parts. At some distance from this wall, exterior works, consisting chiefly of detached forts, will serve to protect the inner fortifications, and serve to prevent an enemy from approaching the walls of the town. This measure at first met with considerable opposition; but, viewing it as a defensive operation, and recollecting how lately the French capital was compelled to open its gates to an invading army, these defences are now regarded with more satisfaction than displeasure.

Subjoined to an excellent article on French statistics, &c., in Mr. M'Culloch's Dictionary, are the following pertinent observations on "the probable continuance of the existing order of things in France;" which, as an appropriate conclusion of this brief history, we take the liberty to transfer to our pages: "It would be to no purpose to take up the reader's time by making any observations on the great influence exercised by France in the politics of Europe and the world. That is too obvious, and has been too strikingly exemplified during the last half century, to require being pointed out. But, since the overthrow of Napoleon, France has been rather an object of awe, and of vague apprehension, from a want of confidence in the stability of her existing institutions, than from any fear of what she might be able to effect under a constitutional and settled form of government. Under all the circumstances, this feeling is, perhaps, not very unreasonable; for, were anything to occur to subvert the present order of things, and to excite the popular enthusiasm, it is difficult to say what the result might be. There are, indeed, many persons who are inclined to regard all apprehensions as to the subversion of the present constitution in France as chimerical; we confess, however, that we are unable to participate in their confidence. Everything in France appears to be tending to a pure democracy; and were there nothing else, the law of equal succession, by preventing the continuance of large fortunes in single families, would suffice to bring it about. What, in fact, is there in France to oppose a revolution? With the exception of the holders of funded property, and of those in the immediate employment of the court, hardly any one could apprehend any injury from it; and it is most probable the property of the former would be protected. There are no longer any great landholders; and it is immaterial to the holder of a small piece of land who is at the head of affairs, provided the burdens laid on him be not increased. Monarchy in France is without all those old associations and powerful bulwarks whence it derives almost

all its support in this, and most other countries; and there is really nothing to hinder a hostile majority in the chamber of deputies, or anything that should powerfully influence the public mind, from at once subverting the regal branch of the constitution. The peers have no real power; and there is no class that has that deep and abiding interest in the support of the existing institutions, that seems indispensable to rescue a government from sudden popular impulses, and give it security and free action. Napoleon will, most probably, be found to have correctly appreciated the existing state of things, when he declared, that 'the destruction of the aristocracy had proved fatal to all subsequent efforts for establishing a constitutional monarchy in France. The revolution had attempted the solution of a problem as impossible as the direction of balloons. An aristocracy is the true support of the throne; its moderator, its lever, its fulcrum. The state without it is a vessel without a rudder; a balloon in the air.' Great prudence on the part of those in authority may, no doubt, enable a government like that of France to exist for an indefinite period, but still it must be deemed of a precarious character. At present, the members of the electoral colleges constitute the only aristocratical body to be found in the country; and there is, perhaps, little to fear from the encroachments of power on the one hand, or of licentiousness on the other, as long as they continue on their present footing. But great efforts are being made to lower the qualifications of electors, and, consequently, to extend the electoral basis; and should these be successful, the government will necessarily be rendered still more dependent on popular impulse.

"But though monarchy should be subverted in France, we look upon it as the merest possible delusion to imagine that there can be anything like a repetition of the enormities and outrages that accompanied the revolution of 1789. Society is now arranged on a totally new basis; there are few or no abuses to rectify; the people are not smarting from the oppressions of a host of feudal tyrants; and, though that is most doubtful, it may be supposed that they have had sufficient experience of the folly of attempting to govern the world. Provided, therefore, they are left to arrange their internal affairs as they may judge best, we incline to think that the other European nations have little to fear from any changes that may take place in the form of government in France. At present, it is a democracy with an hereditary head; the only change likely to happen, is to a democracy with an elective head."

THE HISTORY OF SPAIN.

This country, situated in the south-west of Europe, and bounded by the Atlantic, the Mediterranean, Portugal, and France, was well known to the Phœnicians at least a thousand years before the Christian era; yet it appears to have been very imperfectly known to the Greeks in the time of Herodotus. As far as history or tradition makes us acquainted with its aboriginal inhabitants, they were the Celtæ and Iberians, who became blended in the common name of Celtiberians. Till the coming of the Carthaginians into Spain, however, nothing certain can be affirmed of the Spaniards, and this happened not long before the first punic war.

In ancient times Spain was regarded as a country replete with riches; and though at the time of the Roman conquest prodigious quantities of gold and silver had been carried out of it by the Carthaginians and Tyrians, it still had the reputation of being very rich. We are informed by Aristotle, that when the Phœnicians first arrived in Spain, they exchanged their naval commodities for such immense quantities of silver, that their ships could neither contain nor sustain their load, though they used it for ballast, and made their anchors and other implements of silver. Nor could it have been much diminished when the Carthaginians came, since the inhabitants at that time made all their utensils, even their mangers, of that precious metal. In the time of the Romans this amazing plenty was greatly reduced; still their gleanings were by no means despicable, since in nine years they carried off 111,542 pounds of silver, and 4,095 pounds of gold, besides an immense quantity of coin and other things of value.

Although the earliest inhabitants of Spain appear to have consisted of Celtic tribes, which probably entered the peninsula from the neighbouring country of Gaul, and occupied the northern districts, there is every reason to believe that the southern part of the country was possessed by the Mauritani from the opposite coast of Africa; the narrowness of the strait of Gibraltar, and the valuable products of Spain, being inducements quite sufficient for the African barbarians to form settlements there. Accordingly, the Carthagenians, whose descent from the Phœnicians led them to traffic with all those nations who could supply them with useful commodities, early directed their views towards Spain, and about the year 300 B. C., had established a colony in the north-east of the peninsula, and founded the town of Barceno, the modern Barcelona. In the course of the same century their ambition and jealousy of the Romans induced them to attempt the conquest of a country so advantageously situated for their commercial enterprises. This attempt gave rise to the second punic war. The result was the gradual annexation of the whole peninsula to the Roman republic, and it continued, under the name of Hispania, to form an important province of the empire for nearly seven centuries. It was usually divided into three great portions, Lusitania, Bœtica or Hispania Ulterior, and Tarraconensis or Hispania Citerior. The Spaniards were naturally brave, and though the inhabitants of the eastern and southern coasts had been reduced to a state of servile subjection, yet, as the Romans penetrated farther into the country than the Carthagenians had done, they met with nations whose love of liberty was equal to their valour, and whom the whole strength of their empire was scarcely able to subdue. Of these the most formidable were the Numantines, Cantabrians, and Asturians. In the time of the third punic war, one Vieriathus, a celebrated hunter, and afterwards the captain of a gang of banditti, took the command of some nations who had been in alliance with Carthage, and ventured to oppose the Roman power in that part of Spain called Lusitania, now Portugal. The prætor Vitelius, who commanded in those parts, marched against him with ten thousand men, but was defeated and killed, with the loss of four thousand of his troops. The Romans immediately dispatched another prætor with ten thousand foot and thirteen hundred horse; but Vieriathus, having first cut off a detachment of four thousand of them, engaged the rest in a pitched battle, and, having entirely defeated them, reduced great part of the country. Another prætor, who was sent with a new army, met with the same fate; so that, after the destruction of Carthage, the Romans thought proper to send their consul, Quintus Fabius, who defeated the Lusitanians in several battles. It is not, however, necessary to pursue this portion of the Spanish history with minuteness; suffice it to say, that after many severe contests, in which the Romans were often obliged to yield to the

bravery of the Celtiberians, Numantines, and Cantabrians, Scipio Æmilianus, the destroyer of Carthage, was sent against Numantia, which, after a most desperate resistance, submitted to the Roman commander, though scarcely an inhabitant survived to grace the conqueror's triumph. This was a final overthrow, and the whole of Spain very speedily became a province of Rome, governed by two annual prætors.

Nothing of importance now occurred in the history of the peninsula till the civil war between Marius and Sylla; B. C. 76. The latter having crushed the Marian faction, proscribed all those who had joined against him whom he could not destroy. Among these was Sertorius, who had collected a powerful army from the relics of that party, and contended with great success against Caius Annius and Metellus, who were sent against him. Sertorius now formed a design of erecting Lusitania into an independent republic; and so vigorously were his measures prosecuted, that the Romans became seriously alarmed for the safety of their empire in that quarter. On the death of Sylla, the most eminent generals in Rome contended for the honour of having the command of the army which it was intended to send against this formidable enemy. After some deliberation, the management of this war was intrusted to Pompey, afterwards surnamed the Great, though he had not yet attained the consular dignity. Metellus was not, however, recalled. Sertorius for a long time proved more than a match for them both; and after establishing himself in Lusitania, he made such perpetual attacks on their united armies, that they found it necessary to separate, one retreating into Gaul, and the other to the foot of the Pyrenees. Treachery at length effected for the Roman cause what valour tried in vain, the bold and skilful Sertorius being assassinated at an entertainment by Perperna, after having made head against the Roman forces for almost ten years. Pompey now pressed forward with redoubled ardour against the insurgent army, and the troops, deprived of their able leader, were finally subdued by him.

Though conquered, Spain was not altogether in a state of tranquility; many of the most warlike nations, particularly the Cantabrians and Asturians, continuing, wherever opportunities presented themselves, to struggle for their independence. But from the time of Agrippa, who carried on a war of extermination against them, till the decline of the western empire, they remained in quiet subjection to the Romans. Augustus himself founded the colony of Cæsar Augusta (Saragossa), and Augustus Emerita (Merida). For four hundred years the Roman manners and language took root in the Spanish provinces, which in Cæsar's time had a population of forty millions. Tarragona had two millions five hundred thousand inhabitants; and Merida supported a garrison of ninety thousand men. In the arts of war and peace, the peninsula at that period rivalled Rome, and it gave birth to many men of first-rate character and abilities; among them, Pomponius Mela, Seneca, Lucan, Trajan, and Theodosius the Great.

In the reign of the emperor Honorius, the Gothic tribes of Vandals, Suevi, and Alans, spread themselves over the peninsula. About the year 420 the brave Wallia founded the kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain. The Vandals, from whom Andalusia received its name, could not withstand him, and withdrew into Africa in a few years after. The Visigoths, under Euric, extended their kingdom by the expulsion of the Romans in 484; and at length Leovigild, in 583, overthrew the kingdom of the Suevi, in Galicia. Under his successor, Reccared I., the introduction of the catholic faith gave the corrupt Latin language the predominance over the Gothic; and, after that time, the unity of the Spanish nation was maintained by the catholic religion and the political influence of the clergy.

Towards the end of the seventh century, the Saracens (the name adopted by the Arabs after their settlement in Europe), having overran Barbary with a rapidity which nothing could resist, and possessed themselves of

the Gothic dominions in Africa, made a descent upon Spain. Roderic, the king of the Goths, was a usurper, and having occasioned great disaffection among his subjects, he determined to come to an engagement, knowing that he could not depend upon the fidelity of his own people if he allowed the enemy time to tamper with them. The two armies met in a plain near Xeres, in Andalusia. The Goths began the attack with great fury, but they were totally defeated, and Roderic, in his flight, was drowned in the Guadalquiver, A. D. 711. Nearly the whole of Spain was brought under the dominion of the Moors (as the Arabs of Spain are usually called), by this decisive battle; those Goths who still contended for independence retiring into the mountainous parts of Asturia, Burgos, and Biscay. But in 718 their power began to revive under Pelayo (or Don Pelagio), a prince of the royal blood, who headed those that had retired to the mountains after the fatal battle of Xeres. In the most inaccessible parts of these regions Pelayo established himself; and such were its natural defences, that although the Moorish governor, Alakor, sent a powerful army to crush him, the followers of Pelayo were so concealed among the precipices, that, almost unseen, they annihilated their enemies. In a second attempt the Moors were equally unsuccessful, nearly the whole of their army being either cut in pieces or taken prisoners.

At this time the greater part of Spain became a province of the caliphs of Bagdad; but in the middle of the eighth century, Abderahman, the caliph's viceroy in Spain, threw off the yoke, and rendered himself independent, fixing the seat of his government at Cordova. Abderahman's first care was to regulate the affairs of his kingdom; and though he could not alter the Mahommedan laws, which are unchangeable as the koran wherein they are written, he appointed just magistrates, released his Christian subjects from a great part of the tribute-money hitherto exacted from them, and patronised commerce and the arts. At Cordova he built one of the most superb mosques in the world, and it still remains a splendid monument of the skill and magnificence of that enlightened people. The descendants of Abderahman continued for nearly two centuries to reign in Spain, at their capital Cordova, patronising the sciences and arts, particularly astronomy and medicine, at a period when christian Europe was immersed in ignorance and barbarism. In 778, Charlemagne entered Spain with two great armies, one passing through Catalonia, and the other through Navarre, where he pushed his conquests as far as the Ebro. On his return he was attacked and defeated by the Moors, though this did not prevent him from keeping possession of all those places he had reduced.

In the meantime the kingdom founded by Pelayo, now called the kingdom of Leon and Oviedo, continued to increase rapidly in strength, and many advantages were gained over the Moors. In the early part of the tenth century, a distinguished general, named Mohammed Ebn Amir Almanzor, appeared to support the sinking cause of that people. He took the city of Leon, which he reduced to ashes, and destroyed the inhabitants. Barcelona shared the same fate; Castile was reduced and depopulated; Galicia and Portugal ravaged; and he is said to have overcome the Christians in fifty different engagements. A pestilence, however, having attacked his army just after he had demolished the city of Compostella, and carried off in triumph the gates of the church of St. James, the Christians superstitiously attributed it to a divine judgment; and, in the full persuasion that the Moors were destitute of all heavenly aid, they fell upon them with such fury in the next battle, that all the valour of Almanzor and his soldiers could not save them from a terrible defeat, and, overcome with shame and despair, he starved himself to death.

During this period a new Christian principality appeared in Spain, namely, that of Castile, which lay in the middle between the Christian kingdom of Leon and Oviedo, and the Moorish kingdom of Cordova. This district

soon became an object of contention between the kings of Leon and Cordova; but by degrees Castile fell entirely under the power of the kings of Leon and Oviedo; in 1035, Don Sanchez bestowed it on his son, Don Ferdinand, with the title of king, and by this event the territories of Castile were first firmly united to those of Leon and Oviedo, and the sovereigns were from that time styled kings of Leon and Castile.

Arragon, another Christian kingdom, was set up in Spain about the beginning of the eleventh century. The history of Arragon, however, during its infancy, is but little known. But about the year 1035, Don Sanchez, surnamed the Great, king of Navarre, erected Arragon into a kingdom in favour of his son, Don Ramira, and afterwards it became very powerful. At this time the continent of Spain was divided into two unequal parts, by a straight line drawn from east to west, from the coast of Valentia to a little below the mouth of the Douro. The country north of this belonged to the Christians, who, as yet, had the smallest and least valuable share, and all the rest to the Moors. In point of wealth and real power, both by land and sea, the Moors were greatly superior; but their continual dissensions weakened them, and every day faciliated the progress of the Christians. The Moorish governments, indeed, being weakened by changes of dynasties, as well as by internal dissensions, the Christian kings wrested from them one portion of the country after another, till, after the great victory which the united Christian princes gained over the Moors, in 1222, at Tolosa, in Sierra Morena, there remained to them only the kingdom of Granada, which was likewise obliged to acknowledge the Castilian supremacy in 1246, and was finally conquered by Ferdinand and Isabella.

In 1080, the king of Toledo engaged in a war with the king of Seville, another Moorish potentate, which being observed by Alphonso, king of Castile, he also invaded his territories, and in four years made himself master of the city of Toledo, with all the places of importance in its neighbourhood, and from that time he made Toledo the capital of his dominions. In a short time the whole province of New Castile submitted, and Madrid fell into the hands of the Christians. The only son of Alphonso died without heirs; and Ferdinand, the son of his daughter, united Castile and Leon. Having thus become more powerful than the former kings, he conquered Baeza and Cordova, and after a difficult siege of eighteen months, made himself master of Seville, A. D. 1248. Setting out thence, he gained possession of Cadiz. In vain the mountains of Jaens opposed themselves to his career; the coasts no longer allowed reinforcements to arrive from Africa to the Arabian Spaniards, and Granada was henceforward their chief possession.

Ferdinand III., after conquering Cordova, Murcia, Jaen, Seville, Cadiz, and subjecting Granada to a feudal dependence on him, became, in 1252, the true founder of Castile, by establishing the rule of indivisibility and primogeniture, in the succession. Still the whole was as yet an imperfect confederation. The privileges granted to the Jews in Spain, in the middle ages, had an injurious influence on the government and the public welfare. They were placed nearly on a level with the nobles, they were appointed ministers of finance, farmers of the public revenues, and stewards to the great; thus they obtained possession of all the money in the country, and, by their excessive usury, at length excited a universal outcry against them; and, in 1492, they were banished forever, to the number of eight hundred thousand, from Spain. The improvement of the country was much retarded by the defects in the public administration, particularly in regard to the taxes, by powerful vassals, bad kings, and family disputes; so that the third estate was not formed in Castile till A. D. 1325, two hundred years later than that of Arragon, and with inferior privileges. Meanwhile the Cortes, consisting of the estates of the kingdom, namely, the clergy, the high nobility, the orders of knights, and

eighteen great cities, restricted the royal power, without, however, bringing about a state of legal order. But, in Arragon, of which Alphonso I., since the conquest of Saragossa, in 1115, had been in complete possession, the third estate was formed before the middle of the twelfth century—sooner than in any other European country—and a well settled political order ensued.

In the time of Edward III. we find England, for the first time, interfering with the affairs of Spain. In the year 1284 the kingdom of Navarre had been united to that of France by the marriage of Donna Joanna, queen of Navarre, with Philip the Fair, of France. In 1328, however, the kingdoms were again separated, though the sovereigns of Navarre were still related to those of France. In 1350, Charles, surnamed the Wicked, ascended the throne of Navarre, and married the daughter of John, king of France. Notwithstanding this alliance, and that he himself was related to the royal family of France, he secretly entered into a negotiation with England against the French monarch, and even drew into his schemes the dauphin Charles, afterwards surnamed the Wise. When the young prince was made sensible of the danger of his connexions, by way of atonement he promised to sacrifice his new associates. Accordingly, he invited the king of Navarre, and some of the principal nobility of the same party, to a feast at Rouen, where he betrayed them to his father. The most obnoxious were executed, and the king of Navarre was thrown into prison. In this extremity, the party of the king of Navarre had recourse to England. The prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince, invaded France, defeated King John at Poictiers, and took him prisoner, which unfortunate event produced the most violent disturbances in that kingdom. The dauphin, then about nineteen years of age, naturally assumed the royal power during his father's captivity. In order to obtain supplies, he assembled the states of the kingdom; but that assembly, instead of supporting his administration, demanded limitations of the prince's power, the punishment of past malversations, and the liberty of the king of Navarre. A rebellion ensued; and amid the disorders that convulsed the kingdom, the king of Navarre made his escape from prison, and presented a dangerous leader to the malcontents. Those of the French people who wished to restore peace to their country, turned their eyes towards the dauphin. Marcel, the seditious provost of Paris, was slain in attempting to deliver that city to the king of Navarre. The capital immediately returned to its duty; considerable bodies of the mutinous peasants were dispersed or put to the sword; some bands of military robbers underwent the same fate, and France began once more to assume the appearance of civil government.

In the thirteenth century, during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, the cities in the kingdoms of Arragon and Castile had formed themselves into an association, distinguished by the name of Holy Brotherhood. They exacted a certain contribution from each of the associated towns; they levied a considerable body of troops, in order to protect travellers and pursue criminals; and they appointed judges, who opened courts in various parts of the kingdom. The nobles often murmured against this salutary institution; they complained of it as an encroachment on their most valuable priviliges, and endeavoured to have it abolished. But their catholic majesties (for such was the title they now bore), sensible of the beneficial effects of the Brotherhood, not only in regard to the peace of their kingdom, but in its tendency to abridge, and by degrees annihilate the territorial jurisdiction of the nobility, countenanced the institution upon every occasion, and supported it with the full force of royal authority; by which means the prompt and impartial administration of justice was restored, and with it tranquillity and order. But at the same time that they were giving vigour and justice to their civil government, and securing

their subjects from violence and oppression, an intemperate zeal led them to establish an ecclesiastical tribunal, equally contrary to the natural rights of humanity and the mild spirit of the gospel; and thus originated the most baneful of all institutions, the *Inquisition*. Wherever the footsteps of the "HOLY OFFICE" may be traced, the path is marked with blood; but in no part of the world has it run such a sanguinary career as in Spain.

Of all the Mahommedan possessions in Spain, the kingdom of Granada now alone remained. Princes equally zealous and ambitious naturally wished to add that fertile territory to their hereditary dominions, by expelling the enemies of Christianity and extending its doctrines. Everything conspired to favour their project; the Moorish kingdom was a prey to civil wars; when Ferdinand, having obtained the bull of Sixtus IV., authorising a crusade, put himself at the head of his troops, and entered Granada. Its subjugation quickly followed. When the capital surrendered, it was stipulated that their king should enjoy the revenue of certain places in the fertile mountains of Alpujarros; that the inhabitants should retain undisturbed possession of their houses, goods, and inheritances, their laws and religion. Thus ended the empire of the Arabs in Spain, which had flourished for more than eight hundred years.

During the period of Arabian power, agriculture, commerce, the arts, and sciences, flourished in Spain. The universities and libraries at Cordova and other places were resorted to by the Christians, as the seat of the Greco-Arabic literature and the Aristotelian philosophy. From these institutions Europe received the knowledge of the arithmetical characters, of gunpowder, and of paper made of rags; while, on the other hand, among the Gothic Spaniards, the blending of the chivalrous and religious spirit gave occasion to the foundation of several military orders. We may here remark, that Don Rodrigo Diaz de Vival el Campeador, the hero without an equal, has been celebrated since the end of the eleventh century as the hero of his age. The romantic elevation of national feeling, which found its support in the religious faith and national church, preserved the Christian Gothic states of Navarre, Arragon, and Asturia, from many internal and external dangers. It was in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, and through the patronage of the latter, that Columbus, a Genoese navigator, discovered America. The country was afterwards subdued by Cortez and Pizarro; and its valuable mines of gold and silver continued, until of late, to fill the coffers of Spain; but riches so easily acquired in the new world withdrew much of the activity of the nation from the improvement of the mother country; and avarice, united with fanaticism, established an impolitic colonial system. Still, the extensive conquests which were made by the Spaniards in the new world, though obtained by the fiercest cruelty and the most flagrant injustice, tended, for a time at least, to raise the Spanish monarch above any other in Europe.

On the death of Isabella, which took place in 1506, Philip, archduke of Austria, came to Castile, in order to take possession of that kingdom as heir to his mother-in-law; but he dying in a short time after, his son, Charles V., afterwards emperor of Germany, became heir to the crown of Spain. His father, at his death, left the king of France governor to the young prince; and Ferdinand at his death left Cardinal Ximenes sole regent of Castile, till the arrival of his grandson. This man, whose character is no less singular than illustrious, who united the abilities of a great statesman with the devotion of a superstitious monk, and the magnificence of a prime minister with the severity of a mendicant, maintained order and tranquillity in Spain, notwithstanding the discontents of a turbulent and high-spirited nobility; and when, in 1517, he resigned into the hands of the young king the power he had so worthily held for him, he was able to do so with honour and integrity.

"Never yet," observes Dr. Von Rotteck, "the old Roman emperors, and perhaps Charles Martel excepted, had providence accumulated such great power in Europe upon one head, as Charles V. inherited. The two momentous marriages—that of Maximilian I. with the hereditary princess of Burgundy, and that of his son, Philip I., with Joanna of Spain (upon whom, however, the great inheritance of her parents did not devolve until the death of three nearer heirs), made Charles, Joanna's first-born, the master of immense countries; they gave by that means the political relations and efforts of Europe their principal figure and determination for centuries." Charles had scarcely taken possession of his throne, when the emperor Maximilian assembled a diet at Augsburg, and endeavoured to prevail on the electors to choose that young prince as his successor. But though he could not prevail upon the German electors to confer on him that dignity, other circumstances conspired to his exaltation. The imperial crown had so long continued in the Austrian line, that it began to be considered as hereditary in that family; and Germany, torn by religious disputes, stood in need of a powerful emperor, not only to preserve its own internal tranquillity, but also to protect it against the victorious arms of the Turks, who, under Selim I., threatened the liberties of Europe. This fierce and rapid conqueror had already subdued the Mamelukes, and made himself master of Egypt and Syria. The power of Charles appeared necessary to oppose that of Selim. The extensive dominions of the house of Austria, which gave him an interest in the preservation of Germany; the rich sovereignty of the Netherlands and Franche Compté; the entire possession of the great and warlike kingdom of Spain, together with that of Naples and Sicily, all united to hold him up to the first dignity among Christian princes; and the new world seemed only to be called into existence that its treasures might enable him to defend Christendom against the infidels. Such, at least, was the language of his partisans.

Francis I., king of France, was also a candidate for the empire, and he put forth his claims with equal confidence, and scarcely less plausibility. The electors, whose deliberations were directed by Frederic the Wise, of Saxony, who himself refused the offered throne from purely political motives, united finally in favour of Charles, as a German prince, and whose position promised the empire the most certain protection, especially against the menacing power of the Turks. Yet he was required, by solemn acceptation of a convention with the electors, to guarantee the most precious of ancient rights, and to promise such innovations as appeared useful. Although the two candidates had hitherto conducted their rivalship without enmity, the preference was no sooner given to Charles, than Francis discovered all the passions natural to disappointed ambition, and could not suppress his chagrin and indignation at being rejected. We shall find in the sequel, that the jealousy between those potentates cost Europe four sanguinary wars. The first act of Charles' administration was to appoint a diet of the Empire, to be held at Worms, in order to concert with the princes proper measures for checking the progress of "those new and dangerous opinions which threatened to disturb the peace of Germany, and to overturn the religion of their ancestors." This subject, however, does not properly belong to the history of Spain, and as our notice of the reformation appears elsewhere, we here merely allude to it.

Not long after Charles' coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle, an insurrection broke out in Spain, which was highly dangerous for the power of the king, and extremely remarkable in its origin, spirit, and object. The commencement of the reign of Charles, whose partiality for his Dutch favourites wounded the Spanish pride, was already attended with disorders; and all the courage and all the wisdom of Cardinal Ximenes, whom Ferdinand the Catholic had appointed in his last moments administrator of the

kingdom, had been necessary to allay the storm, which the nobility had mainly raised. The arrival of Charles in Spain would have restored complete tranquillity, had he not wantonly wounded the hearts of his people, who were becoming favourably disposed towards him, by his scornful and despotic manners, and harshly violated the constitutional rights of the country by his imperious tone, by disregard of customary forms, and by extraordinary demands. As soon, therefore, as he had gone to Germany, to take possession of the new throne, the cities of Castile arose for the defence of their ancient rights. These cities, jealous of their independence, refused to acknowledge Cardinal Adrian, bishop of Utrecht, whom Charles, his former pupil, had appointed regent. They concluded among themselves a "holy league," got possession of the person of the queen-mother, to administer in the name of her, as the legitimate sovereign, the government of the kingdom, and sent to the king a detail of their well-founded grievances, of which they demanded redress. Charles refused to receive the deputies of the league, and thus augmented the exasperation of the people. The league then raised its head still more boldly, and formed plans for liberating the common people from the ancient feudal oppression of the nobility. The democratic spirit spread rapidly; but it was by this very means the cause was lost; for the nobles in all the provinces, feeling that spirit far more than the abuse of the royal power, rallied around the throne, which they had previously risen against, and around the regent Adrian, whom they had hitherto hated, in order to frustrate the projects of the rebels. The citizen-warriors of the league, notwithstanding the high courage and devotedness of individuals, were unable to withstand the shock of the forces brought against them; and though the noble city of Toledo defied their power for nearly a year after all the others had submitted, it was at length taken by stratagem, and royalty triumphed. The most precious of ancient privileges were abolished or forgotten; the cortes, once so venerated and influential, degenerated into tame assemblies, the principal business of which was to grant taxes, but the voice of which was unable to produce salutary reform. This revolt seemed to Francis a favourable juncture for reinstating the family of John d'Albert in the kingdom of Navarre. Charles was at a distance from that part of the dominions, and the troops usually stationed there had been called away to quell the commotion in Spain. A French army, under Andrew de Foix, speedily conquered Navarre; but that young and inexperienced nobleman, pushed on by military ardour, ventured to enter Castile. The Spaniards, though divided among themselves, united against a foreign enemy, routed his forces, took him prisoner, and recovered Navarre in a shorter time than he had spent in its reduction.

Hostilities thus begun in one quarter between the rival monarchs, soon spread to another. The king of France encouraged the duke of Bouillon to make war against the emperor, and to invade Luxembourg. Charles, after humbling the duke, attempted to enter France; but was repelled and worsted before Mezieres, by the famous Chevalier Bayard, distingnished among his cotemporaries by the appellation of "The knight without fear and without reproach," and who united the talents of a great general to the punctilious honour and romantic gallantry of the heroes of chivalry.

During these operations in the field, an unsuccessful congress was held at Calais, under the mediation of Henry VIII. of England. It served only to exasperate the parties which it was intended to reconcile. A league was soon after concluded, by the intrigues of Wolsey, between the pope, Henry, and Charles, against France; and after a severe contest, in which Francis continued to lose ground in Italy, the authority of the emperor and his confederates was everywhere established there. Following up the advantages he had gained in the field by political manœuvre Charles paid a visit to the court of England in his way to Spain, where his pres-

ence was become necessary. In this he was more fortunate than he had any right to expect; for he not only gained the cordial friendship of Henry, but disarmed the resentment of Wolsey, (who had been grossly deceived and offended by the share which Charles took in conferring the papacy, vacant at Leo's death, on Adrian), by assuring him of it on the decease of the present pontiff, whose age and infirmities seemed to render it not far distant. But the negotiation between Charles and Henry proved of little value to either; for the army under the earl of Surrey, that was sent to invade France, was obliged to retire at the end of the campaign, without being able to take one place within the French frontier.

Francis had prepared not only for the most energetic defence of his kingdom, but was resolved also upon reconquering Milan. This, perhaps, would have succeeded, had he not at the instigation of his intriguing mother, Louise of Savoy, incurred the enmity of Prince Charles of Bourbon, constable of France. Impelled by passion, this prince fled to the emperor, in order to fight under his banners, and thereby revenge the wrong which had been inflicted on him. Thus France lost its best general, and secured the triumph of its enemy, by the hand of its natural defender. In the meantime the imperial army, under the command of Pescara and Bourbon, had penetrated into Provence, and was besieging Marseilles. But Francis, never more energetic than in misfortune, forced these arrogant generals to retreat, and entered once more as conqueror the plains of Milan and their brilliant capital. The strong city of Pavia, on the preservation of which almost the last hope of the emperor hung, he now besieged with all the impetuosity of passion, and with all the resources of the art of war. Great destinies seemed to depend on the issue of this siege. Already the friends of Charles began to waver; already threatening clouds seemed to portend some dire political calamity. Pope Clement VII. (Medicis), previously the enemy of the French, having signed a treaty of neutrality, abandoned the cause of Charles; and England, ministering to the passions of Wolsey, its prime minister, had grown cold in the emperor's interest. The French army no sooner appeared in Piedmont than the whole Milanese was thrown into consternation. The capital opened its gates. The forces of the emperor and Sforza retired to Lodi; and had Francis pursued them, they must have abandoned that post, and been totally dispersed. But fortune suddenly rescued her favourite son from such a disaster, by a most decisive blow. The evil genius of Francis led him to besiege Pavia, which almost miraculously withstood, during the winter, the immense force that was brought against it, until the generals of Charles, strengthened by reinforcements, hastened to its relief. The soldiers of the emperor, eager for plunder, longed to engage; and the chivalrous pride of Francis would not permit him to decline a battle, although in this he acted contrary to the advice of his most experienced generals. Under the walls of Pavia, February 23, 1525, the emperor's army gained the most brilliant victory; Francis himself, after the most valiant resistance, being taken prisoner.

The news of this victory, and of the captivity of Francis more especially, filled all Europe with consternation. The French army was nearly destroyed, Milan was immediately abandoned, and in a few weeks not a French soldier was left in Italy. The power of the emperor, and still more his ambition, became an object of universal terror, and resolutions were everywhere taken to set bounds to it; while France, governed at such a calamitous juncture by the queen-mother, a princess of a masculine and courageous character, prepared for a desperate contest. The emperor saw a prospect of unbounded glory, and immediately meditated plans for realizing it. It was not, however, by pursuing his victory with energy, but by recurring to artful negotiation, that Charles sought to gain his object. He designed to humble Francis, who rejected with indignation

the ignominious terms of deliverance which were offered to him, and spent one long sad year in Madrid under the strictest custody. Finally his desire for liberty overcame him, and he signed, on the 14th of January, 1526, the treaty called the peace of Madrid, in which he ceded Burgundy, and renounced his claims to Milan and all other Italian countries. He also relinquished his feudal sovereignty over Flanders and Artois; promised to restore to the duke of Bourbon and his adherents all their possessions, to abandon the cause of the king of Navarre, and, by surrendering his two elder sons as hostages, and taking his oath if all this was not fulfilled he would return into captivity, guarantied the inviolability of the whole treaty. But we must not forget to state, that a few hours before he signed this instrument, King Francis had *protested* before some of his faithful friends, secretly, although by writing, against this treaty, which he said he was compelled by unjust force to conclude, and by which he thought he was nowise bound. And let us not forget, also, that Pope Clement II. soon afterwards formally released him from the obligation of his oath!

After Francis had returned to his kingdom, the imperial ambassadors in vain demanded the fulfilment of this treaty. The deputies of the states of Burgundy, having been called into their presence at the same time, declared that the king had passed the limits of his power by ceding their country, and that, if he abandoned them, they would avert from themselves foreign dominion with their own power. At the same time the news was spread of the alliance concluded between the king of France and the pope, in which the Venetians, the duke of Milan, and the king of England also participated. It was designed by force of arms to make Charles subscribe to more moderate terms; and the alliance was called the holy league. But Francis, having become disheartened by his previous misfortunes, negotiated instead of fighting, while his Italian allies succumbed to the superior forces of the emperor. In the meantime Charles had strengthened his armies by new levies, and they were now under Bourbon's command. But his troops were a mixture of Spaniards, Italians, and Germans, who, devoid of national feeling, and without love for the cause, served only for pay and booty. So badly managed were the finances of the emperor, that he, before whose power Europe trembled, could not, at that time, furnish money sufficient to pay twenty-five thousand men. In that dilemma the general led the army against Rome, and promised to enrich them with the spoils of the eternal city. Nor did he make an idle boast; for though Bourbon himself was shot while planting a scaling-ladder against the walls, the soldiers, infuriated rather than discouraged by the death of their beloved commander, mounted to the assault, took the city, and pillaged it with all the atrocities of rapacity and brutality.

Never did Rome in any age suffer so many calamities, not even from the barbarians by whom she was often subdued, the Huns, Vandals, or Goths, as now from the subjects of a Christian and Catholic monarch. During this storm the pope had taken refuge in the castle of St. Angelo, and, not making his escape in time, was taken prisoner. He was confined till he should pay an enormous ransom imposed by the victorious army, and surrender to the emperor all the places of strength belonging to the papal dominions. Well knowing the horror which his Spanish subjects would feel at the indignity thus offered to the sovereign pontiff, Charles not only repressed all outward demonstration of joy at this new triumph, but literally put himself and his court into mourning, and, with unexampled hypocrisy, had prayers offered up in all the churches of Spain for the recovery of the pope's liberty, when an imperial order would have instantly procured his freedom!

A. D. 1529.—Charles had, however, more to apprehend from the resentment of other powers than from his own subjects; and it was not long before his old competitor, Francis, with the aid of English money, was

able to send a formidable army into Italy, under the command of Marshal Lautrec. Clement then regained his freedom; but the death of the French marshal, and the revolt of Andrew Doria, a Genoese admiral in the service of France, were serious disasters, which inclined Francis to try the effect of negotiation in lieu of the force of arms. The progress of the reformation in Germany—to which Charles was ever most strenuously opposed—at this time threatened the tranquillity of the empire; while the victorious sultan, Solyman, who had overrun Hungary, was ready to break in upon the Austrian territories with an overwhelming force. In this state of things, a pacific accommodation was too desirable to be refused by Charles, notwithstanding he had lately gained such advantages; and it was agreed that Margaret of Austria (Charles' aunt), and Louisa (the mother of Francis), should meet at Cambray, with a view of adjusting the terms of a treaty between the two monarchs. The result was, that Francis agreed to pay two millions of crowns as the ransom of his two sons, to resign the sovreignty of Flanders and Artois, and to forego all his claims on Italy; and Charles ceased to demand the restitution of Burgundy. On this occasion, Henry VIII. was so generous to his friend and ally, Francis, that he sent him an acquittal of near 600,000 crowns, in order to enable him to fulfil his agreement with the emperor.

The terrors of the Turkish arms were at this time greatly increased by the cruelties exercised on the subjects of Christian states who were so unfortunate as to fall into the power of the Algerine pirate, Barbarossa. This man was the son of a potter at Lesbos, and by deeds of violence had raised himself to the throne. He regulated with much prudence the interior police of his kingdom, carried on his piracies with great vigour, and extended his conquests on the continent of Africa; but perceiving that the natives submitted to his government with impatience, he put his dominions under the protection of the grand seignior. Solyman, flattered by such an act of submission, and considering him the only adversary worthy of being opposed to the renowned Doria, appointed him to the command of the Turkish fleet. Thus assisted, he not only strengthened his former kingdom but usurped that of Tunis, and now carried on his depredations against the Christian states with more destructive violence than ever. Willing to support the exiled king of Tunis, Muly Hassan, but far more desirous of delivering his dominions from so dangerous a neighbor as Barbarossa, the emperor readily concluded a treaty with the former, and set sail for Tunis with a formidable armament. This was the most brilliant exploit of his life. He sailed from Cagliari to the African coast, took the strong seaport town of Goletta by storm, with three hundred pieces of cannon and all Barbarossa's fleet, defeated the tyrant in a pitched battle, and ten thousand Christian slaves having overpowered the guards and got possession of the citadel, he made his triumphant entry into Tunis. Muly Hassan, on being reinstated, agreed to acknowledge himself a vassal of the crown of Spain, to put the emperor in possession of all the fortified seaports in the kingdom of Tunis, and to pay annually twelve thousand crowns for the subsistence of the Spanish garrison in Goletta. These points being settled, and twenty thousand Christian slaves freed from bondage, either by arms or treaty, Charles, covered with glory, returned to Europe, and was received as the deliverer of Christendom. Barbarossa, who had retired to Bona, lost no time in gathering around him the necessary means of becoming again the tyrant of the ocean. While Charles was fighting in so glorious a manner against the hereditary enemy of the Christian name, the king of France took advantage of his absence to revive his pretensions in Italy. Glorious as the result had been, the temerity of the Algerine expedition at first portended nothing but misfortune, and Francis thought such an opportunity of turning the political scale might not again occur. How quickly did the pros-

pect change! Barbarossa defeated and obliged to fly--the barbarian prince for whom Charles had interested himself, replaced upon the throne of Tunis, and that kingdom made tributary to Spain—while altars were erected there to the Christian religion, and the triumph of the conqueror adorned with the broken chains of slavery.

A. D. 1536.—Francis now invaded Italy, occupied Savoy and Piedmont, and threatened Milan. Charles, again roused to exertion, arrived with a superior force, and drove the French from the greatest part of Savoy, invaded Provence, and besieged Marseilles. But the great talents of the Marshal de Montmorency, who commanded the French army, and still more the determined energy of the people, who now arose to defend their homes and property, compelled Charles to raise the siege and make a most deplorable retreat across the Alps. After other feats of arms, attended with changing success, a truce was concluded, through the mediation of the pope, for ten years (June 18, 1538), according to which each of the belligerents retained what he possessed. Savoy was therefore divided, but Milan remained in the hands of the emperor, although under equivocal promises in favor of France. These conditions were not fulfilled. For Charles, having invested his son Philip with Milan, had given his adversary a new cause for animosity; and the second expedition of the emperor to Africa, which was this time very unfortunate, furnished Francis with a favourable occasion for a new rupture. The audacious piracies of Barbarossa, which were renewed with all their horrors, appeared finally to require an avenging sword; and Charles, full of the proudest hopes, undertook this crusade in October, 1541, at the head of a powerful army, well equipped and stored. Hardly had they arrived on the coast of Algiers, when a storm arose which destroyed the fleet, and left the discouraged troops exposed to the fierce attacks of an exasperated enemy. The battalions, relieved by abandoning their baggage and munitions, marched from the gates of Algiers amid a thousand dangers and hardships, to Cape Metafuz, where the vessels that had escaped the storm awaited them, and the miserable remnant of the army embarked.

A. D. 1542.—Francis thought that the moment had at length arrived for prostrating his enemy. He took the field against Charles with five armies, on five different boundaries—towards Spain, Luxembourg, Brabant, Flanders, and Milan. Nor did he blush to admit the auxiliary fleet of the sultan into the harbour of Marseilles, or to let the French flag float beside that of the pirate Barbarossa in the line of battle against the imperial and papal fleets. But all this was of little avail. Andrew Doria remained master at sea, and the five armies of France, notwithstanding their success in the beginning (and notwithstanding even the brilliant victory of Cerisoles), in which ten thousand of the emperor's best troops fell, yielded at last to the perseverance, prudence, and fortune of Charles and his generals. On the other hand, Charles having renewed his old alliance with Henry, king of England, had already penetrated into Champagne, and menaced the heart of France, while Henry was advancing through Picardy, in order to unite with Charles at Paris. At length, mutually tired of harassing each other, the rival monarchs concluded a treaty of peace at Crespy (1544), which, in the main, renewed the conditions of the earlier one at Cambray, but contained also the project of a matrimonial connexion between the two houses. Francis died in 1547. In consequence of the emperor's resolution to humble the protestant princes, he concluded a dishonourable peace with the porte, stipulating that his brother Ferdinand should pay tribute for that part of Hungary which he still possessed, while the sultan enjoyed undisturbed possession of the rest. At the same time he entered into a league with Pope Paul III. for the extirpation of heresy, but in reality to oppress the liberty of Germany. But he failed in his object, and was obliged, in 1552, to conclude

a peace with the protestants on their own terms. By this peace the emperor lost Metz, Toul, and Verdun, which had formed the barrier of the empire in that quarter; he therefore, soon after, put himself at the head of an army, in order to recover these three bishoprics. In this he was unsuccessful. The defence of Metz was committed to Francis of Lorraine, duke of Guise, who possessed in an eminent degree all the qualities that render men great in military command; and although the emperor marched into Lorraine at the head of sixty thousand men, and laid siege to Metz, attempting all that was thought possible for art or valour to effect, he was obliged to abandon the enterprise, with the loss of one half of his troops.

Breathing vengeance against France, and impatient to efface the stain his reputation had received, Charles retired to the Low Countries, and took Terouanne and Hesdin. In Italy and Hungary, however, the imperial arms were less successful; still, by efforts of wisdom, celerity, and prudence, he again snatched the laurel from his enemy's brow. At length, after having reigned over Spain for thirty-nine years, this mighty monarch, whose life had been one continued scene of ardent pursuits, either disgusted with the pomp of power and the projects of ambition, or sickened by repeated disappointments, resigned the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and his hereditary dominions (Spain, Italy, Flanders, and the American possessions), to his son Philip. He then sought happiness in quiet obscurity, and retired to the monastery of St. Juste, in the province of Estremadura, where, after two years tranquillity, he closed one of the most tumultuous lives that is to be met with in history; A. D. 1558. Extraordinary penetration, astonishing skill, unwearied application to business, a profound knowledge of men, and of the art of placing them properly; a mind calm in prosperity and unshaken in adversity; an activity which continually hurried him from one extremity of his empire to the other, were the talents that distinguished Charles, and raised him to the first rank among those who governed the world. He was inferior to his rival, Francis, in the qualities of the heart, but far exceeded him in abilities, and, independent of superiority of power, was formed to triumph over him. Ambitious, artful, and prudent; little scrupulous in point of religion, and always affecting to appear the reverse; prodigal of his promises in danger, and preferring the advantages of breaking to the honour of keeping them; affable and open with subjects, who, in a manner, adored him; a dissembler with his enemies, whom he flattered only to destroy—this prince possessed all the virtues and vices necessary for the conquest of Europe, and would in all probability have subjected it, but for the courage of Francis and the capacity of Solyman.

When Charles V. resigned his dominions to his son Philip II., anxious that he should pursue the same plans of conduct and principles of policy, he put into his hands all the political observations which he had written down during his long reign, and which formed a system of the art of government both in peace and in war. Philip treated his father with great disrespect after he had abdicated the crown, yet he highly valued and carefully studied this his political testament, which being the result of long experience, and dictated by great abilities, might be thought an inestimable gift; but the event has proved that the maxims adopted and principles laid down were in their tendency destructive of the true interests of Spain, whose power has been gradually weakened, and wealth exhausted, by the system of aggrandizement therein recommended, and pursued during the two succeeding reigns. The Spaniards, even to this time, retain the memory of this fact, on which they have founded a proverbial expression, that "in all great emergencies, their ministers are wont to consult the spirit of Charles V."

At the period to which we are now arrived, how powerful was the throne

of Spain! Besides that fine and warlike country, it governed also in Europe the two Sicilies, the Milanese, the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, and Franche Compté; in Africa, Tunis and Oran, with their territories, the Canaries and some of the Cape Verd islands; in Asia, the Philippines, the islands of Sundi, and a part of the Moluccas; in America, the empires of Mexico and Peru, New Spain, Chili, and almost all the islands situated between these two continents. The troops of Spain were the first in Europe; their armies, reckoned invincible, were composed of veterans trained in actual service, inured to fatigue, and animated by the remembrance of various triumphs. They were commanded by the dukes of Alva and Savoy, both pupils of Charles V., who had been brought up in his camp, and were already distinguished by their victories. Her immense fleets, which in a manner covered the seas, had been taught to contend with Barbarossa, and to triumph under Doria; the mines of Potosi and Chili, lately opened, were in full vigor, and enriched Cadiz with an annual tribute of twenty millions sterling. Philip II. was master of all those possessions. He had recently married the queen of England; and the passionate fondness of Mary for a husband who made no return to her affection, gave him the command of all the forces of her kingdom. This monarch had neither the valour or activity of his father, nor that affability which made the emperor the idol of his subjects; but he had all his ambition, and supported it with those talents and vices which make tyrants so formidable. His penetration and capacity were extensive; but he was callous to every generous feeling, full of duplicity and suspicion, cruel, revengeful, and superstitious. A truce of five years, settled by the management of Charles V., had given some repose to Europe, and seemed to promise a lasting peace. An aged pontiff revived the animosity of nations, and kindled the flames of a general war. Paul IV., impatient to be revenged on Philip, sent his nephew to Henry II., in order to persuade him to take up arms. Montmorency in vain urged him to reject the solicitations of an ambitious old man; Guise, who ardently wished to display his talents, prevailed on the monarch to assist the pope, and hostilities were renewed. Henry, who always found a faithful ally in Solyman, was joined by the sultan and the pontiff against Philip. The latter, who, notwithstanding the indifference which he showed for his consort, still preserved an absolute empire over her, found no great difficulty in obtaining the assistance of English forces. Thus Italy, Hungary, and the frontiers of France, were at the same time in a flame. Tranquillity, however, soon revived in Italy, where the misfortunes of Henry, the defeats of Guise, and the abilities of the duke of Alva, obliged the pontiff to abandon the monarch whose assistance he had implored. In Flanders Philip appeared in person, at the head of a numerous army; the operations being directed by Philibert of Savoy, a prince of great abilities, which he was particularly desirous of exerting on this occasion, from motives of resentment against the oppressors of his country. The flower of the French troops advanced to meet the Spaniards, and a splendid train of nobles followed their warlike leader; the king was prepared to join them, and the city of St. Quentin became the general rendezvous of those numerous forces. Philibert laid siege to it; and it was defended by the gallant Coligny, nephew of the constable. The prodigious efforts of the inhabitants, animated by the young hero, confounded Philip, and he already began to dread that he should be under the necessity of raising the siege in a shameful manner, when the impetuous Montmorency appeared under the walls, and offered battle. The French fought valiantly, but their courage was useless; the capacity of the Spanish general triumphed over the rash valour of his opponent; a bloody defeat threw Montmorency into chains, and destroyed the greater part of the nobles under his command. The capture of the city immediately followed.

France, unprotected on all sides, thought herself undone, and Paris trembled with apprehensions of soon seeing the enemy at her gates. Charles, who was informed in his retreat of the success of his son, no longer doubted of the destruction of his ancient rivals, and the French monarch was preparing to fly for shelter to some remote province. The duke of Guise, who had been recalled from Italy, was the only person that did not despair of preserving the state. With incredible diligence he collected the scattered remains of the vanquished army, and when, by judicious marches and continued skirmishes, he had given a check to the ardour of the enemy, and revived the courage of the French, he suddenly turned towards Calais, and after a vigorous and well-concerted attack, deprived the English of a place that, for three centuries, had given them a ready entrance to the continent. Philip fixed his residence at Madrid, and governed his vast dominions without the aid of any ostensible minister, in perfect despotism. By his intrigues the popedom was conferred on Cardinal Medicis, who was attached to the house of Austria, and became the minister of his designs. The new pontiff loaded him with favours, and declared him the protector of the church, which title the monarch justified by extraordinary condescension. He submitted to bulls and papal edicts that affected the majesty of the throne, and paid a blind deference to the clergy. He raised immense and magnificent monasteries, rigorously persecuted the enemies of Rome, and presided at those horrid rites which bigotry and enthusiasm dignified with the name of *acts of faith*. He gave orders for establishing that court in all the provinces under his authority, and published decrees to inflame the zeal of the tyrants who presided over it. Can it be wondered at that the oppressive severity of this execrable court should cause disaffection?

The Moors, who remained in Spain on the faith of treaties, were enraged to see their privileges violated, their liberty continually menaced, and the blood of their dearest friends flowing beneath the hands of public executioners. Despair supplied the place of strength; they considered nothing but the excess of their misery, and endeavoured to break their chains, the weight of which was become insupportable. The execution of one of their countrymen, whom they had crowned, did not terrify them; they supplied his place by another, and implored the assistance of strangers who professed the religion of their ancestors. A general rebellion rent the southern parts of the kingdom, which now became once more the theatre of an ancient animosity. All Spain was alarmed; Philip alone secretly exulted at the revolt he had produced. The valour of his troops and the abilities of his generals triumphed over the desperate resolution of the Moors, and these unfortunate people were obliged to submit to the mercy of the king; they lost their rights and possessions, and were transplanted to the provinces that lay most remote from their former settlements. The people of Arragon, at the same time, demanded a restoration of their violated privileges; Naples threatened to shake off the yoke, and Milan, so long remarkable for fidelity, was endeavouring likewise to break her fetters. The establishment of the inquisition terrified the inhabitants, and prompted them to take up arms. But the same crafty measures also appeased those disturbances, and the efforts exerted by so many nations for the recovery of their liberty, served only to rivet their chains the faster. The tumults and confusion in Flanders were still more violent. The people were extremely jealous of their privileges, which they had preserved under their counts and the dukes of Burgundy; they compelled Charles V. to respect them, and that prince, after despairing to subject them by terror, adopted the more generous method of conciliating their affection. Philip, who never had a heart to relish such an expedient, was passionately desirous of bending the stubborn necks of this people to the most oppressive and humiliating yoke; their privileges were obnoxious to his

pride, and their immense riches inflamed his cupidity. When he quitted that country, with a resolution never to return, he seemed inclined to continue the mildness of his father's rule; he appointed Margaret, the daughter of Charles V., and widow of Octavius, duke of Parma, its ruler. The wit, charms, and clemency of this princess, were well calculated to gain the hearts of a generous people, but, at the same time, the unfeeling cardinal Granville, who made no distinction between policy and perfidy, or zeal and persecution, was placed at the head of the council. This ecclesiastic was the depository of the secrets of the cabinet, and while he appeared to perform but a secondary part, was actually employed in the first. He treated the nobles with contempt, issued extravagant edicts that were prejudicial to industry and commerce, multiplied taxes, trampled on the laws, and punished the most humble remonstrances and timid representations as crimes. The Flemings, thus oppressed under the yoke of a stranger, contented themselves with lamenting their distress in private; but the sight of the tribunal of the inquisition, erected in their principal cities, raised a general indignation; the people forgot their weakness, and thought not of their duty; protestants, impelled by rage and fury, pulled down churches, subverted altars, and obliged the clergy to fly. Margaret trembled at those increasing tumults, and endeavoured to appease them by a prudent compliance with the desires of the people; the cardinal overturned all her measures, and published a decree of council, equally ridiculous and cruel, against those seditious proceedings, which condemned all the citizens indiscriminately—the heretics for having destroyed the temples, and the catholics because they did not prevent them. The nobles, foreseeing the consequences of the ill-advised acts of the minister, endeavoured to persuade him from such inconsiderate conduct; but being dismissed with haughtiness, and finding themselves disappointed in their hopes of meeting with justice from the throne, they determined, if possible, to save their conntry, by a resolute opposition to the council, that should re-establish the vigour of the laws.

At the head of those nobles was William, prince of Orange, descended from the illustrious house of Nassau, that three centuries before had swayed the imperial sceptre. With every necessary qualification for effecting a revolution, William had ambition, capacity, and courage to undertake anything, and saw, with secret pleasure, that the imprudent haughtiness of the Spanish minister was opening a road to give him independence. In order to conceal his ambitious designs, he assumed an air of submission and respect, and talked of nothing but carrying the complaints of his countrymen to Madrid; but he secretly concerted a more extensive plan. With this view he conciliated the friendship of the great, and ingratiated himself in a particular manner with the counts Egmont and Horn. These two noblemen were descended from very ancient families, and were both excellent citizens and faithful subjects; Egmont was distinguished for victories he had gained for the house of Austria; Horn was respected for his virtues by all parties. The cries of the nation carried to the throne by such venerable advocates seemed to affect Philip; Granville was recalled, and the people flattered themselves with the hope of seeing their grievances redressed by a new minister. In some men the most valuable powers of the mind are united with the basest passions. Thus it was with Alva, whom Philip had appointed to succeed Granville. As soon as he arrived in Flanders, by an affected show of lenity and moderation that silenced all diffidence and apprehensions, he appeased and united the Flemings, disarmed them, and decoyed the principal nobility to Brussels. The governor, thus master of their fate, threw off the mask that till then concealed his despotic and sanguinary sentiments, confined the most distinguished persons in a dungeon, and appointed a special commission for their trial. Judges, devoted to his mandates, condemned eighteen noble-

men to death, and a few days after pronounced the like sentence against Egmont and Horn. These executions, conducted with the most awful solemnity, were a prelude to many others. Executioners were dispatched from one city to another, and in the space of one month thousands perished under their hands. Terror, which at first chilled the courage of the people, at length gave place to despair, by which it was relieved. Numerous armies appeared on every side, all animated by the desire of avenging the blood of their friends and fellow-citizens shed on the scaffold, and all made desperate by the certainty of having no hope of pardon. Alva, no less great as a commander than he was barbarous as a minister, hastened at the head of a small body of Spaniards to the different provinces, fought and triumphed at every step, dispersed the confederates, beat down the walls of the cities, and deluged the streets with blood. One head, however, escaped the governor's snare; William, prince of Orange, having more penetration than his unfortunate friends, did not give way to the flattering invitations of the Spaniard. He retired to Germany, where he learned, with the rest of Europe, the miseries of his country; proscribed as he was, and his fortune confiscated, without friends or support, he ventured to declare himself openly the avenger of his countrymen. A general hatred against Philip, whose enormities he laid open, horror and detestation against the duke of Alva, whose tyrannical excesses he painted in strong colours, the interest of the protestant religion, the alliances of the house of Nassau with so many sovereigns, his prayers, his patience and resolution, procured him a small army, and his two brothers who joined him gave increase to his hopes. He scarce raised the standard of liberty, when the people flocked round him ready to obey his orders. His first attempts were unsuccessful, and gave way to the superior fortune of the duke of Alva; he returned to Germany, collected another army, made his appearance in Holland again, and was once more obliged to fly. Haarlem, Flushing, Leyden, and most of the maritime towns renounced all obedience to the duke of Alva; the love of civil and religious liberty animated every breast, and the Hollanders, till then obscure and insignificant, seemed to become a nation of heroes. Courage and skill were in vain opposed to them; the love of liberty supplied the place of numbers, policy, experience, and riches. At length the sovereignty of Philip was abjured, the Roman catholic religion abolished, the state erected into a republic, and William declared their chief, under the title of *stadtholder*. But he did not long enjoy the title. An assassin employed by Philip gratified his revenge against William, and the sudden death of that great man seemed to threaten the extinction of the republic he had created; but Maurice, his worthy son inherited his dignity, his talents, and his zeal. The new stadtholder was not dismayed at the approach of the duke of Parma, though that hero possessed all the capacity of the duke of Alva, and, with more knowledge and experience, had many excellent qualities. Though reduced to the last extremity by the amazing efforts of their enemies, they would listen to no accommodation, and contented themselves with soliciting succours from Queen Elizabeth. Their persevering efforts were rewarded; the republic revived, her fleets returned from distant countries richly laden, and furnished her with new resources for repelling her tyrants and securing her liberty on a solid foundation.

While Philip was pursuing the war against these obstinate revolters, an unexpected revolution procured him a new kingdom. John III., who during a long reign saw Portugal enjoy a most splendid prosperity, left only a grandson for his successor, who was still an infant, and promised to be the model of happy monarchs. A peaceful and wise regency augmented those expectations, which were confirmed by the great qualities that appeared in Sebastian. This prince, in peace with all Europe, master of the most extensive commerce till then carried on, idolized by his

people, who fancied the great kings his predecessors were revived in him, appeared to have nothing that could prevent him from enjoying an enviable felicity. But a vain passion for glory having suddenly captivated the mind of Sebastian, hurried him to the tomb, and with him the glory and prosperity of the nation vanished forever. One of those scenes of ambition so frequent among barbarians, had lately been exhibited at Morocco. The ruler of that country was both weak and odious, and his uncle taking advantage of his unpopularity, obtained the crown. The unfortunate monarch having no hopes of assistance from subjects that had suffered by his oppression, applied to the Christian princes, and endeavoured to interest them in his cause by the most specious promises. Philip was too prudent to engage in a war from which he could derive but little advantage, and therefore rejected the solicitations and offer of the African. Sebastian eagerly embraced them, and resolved to employ all his forces in restoring the tyrant. Deaf to all advice, and blind to every other consequence, he could see nothing in the prosecution of his design but the honour of being the protector of kings, the glory of having an emperor for his vassal, and of planting the standard of Christianity in the capital of one of the most powerful enemies of the cross. He led the army in person to Africa, and having landed with such success as seemed to presage still greater advantages, he exulted in the general consternation that appeared around him. But his fond hopes were speedily dissipated, for when on the plains of Alcassar the armies of Europe and Africa contested the prize of valour, the vanquished Christains suffered a memorable defeat; half the Portuguese nobility fell beneath the Moorish scimetar, and three kings were slain.

The cardinal Henry immediately ascended the throne of Portugal, but he survived his accession only two years, and Philip, being in the same degree of affinity with Catharine, duchess of Braganza, who then claimed the sceptre, supported his pretensions by force of arms, and proved victorious in many a sanguinary encounter. Lisbon was taken, plundered, and deluged with blood. Executioners succeeded to the soldiery; the whole kingdom was subjected to Philip, and his good fortune at the same time gave him possession of all the appendages of the crown—the Portuguese colonies on the coast of Africa, Brazil, and the richest islands of the Indies. Yet, rich and extensive as were his possessions, valiant as were his troops, and inflexible as he was in all that he undertook, the brave Flemings, assisted by Elizabeth of England, carried on the war in support of their independence with unconquerable fortitude. Impatient of this long protracted struggle, so disgraceful to him who could boast the best troops and most able generals in the world, Philip resolved, by one stupendous effort, to subdue the spirit of revolt, and chastise the powers which had abetted it. He fitted out, in the year 1588, the most formidable fleet that had ever sailed, and, that religious zeal might give greater force to the weapons of war, the pope (Sixtus V.) bestowed on it his benediction, and styled it "the invincible armada." Three years had been spent in preparing this armament, which was destined for the conquest of England. It consisted of 130 ships, most of which, from their large size, were unwieldly; nor was the skill of the Spaniards in maritime affairs equal to the management of such a fleet. No sooner had the armada entered the narrow seas, than it was beset with violent tempests; while the whole naval force of England, then composed of light fast-sailing ships, was drawn together to oppose the attack. Lord Effingham had the chief command, and Sir Francis Drake, the circumnavigator, who was vice-admiral, performed signal services. The superior seamanship of the English was very successfully displayed in this important contest, in which great advantages were obtained from the use of fire-ships, which were first brought into use upon this memorable occasion. Such were the consequences, both from the elementary war and the attacks of their enemies,

that in the course of a month from the time they left Corunna, no more than fifty-three ships had escaped destruction, and about twenty thousand persons perished in the expedition.

Philip died in the year 1598, having reigned forty-three years. He has been compared, and in some respects with justice, to Tiberius. Both these tyrants attempted and accomplished the abasement of the character of their people; both were equally dreaded by their own families and by their subjects; both were full of the deepest dissimulation; both were severe towards others, and licentious in their own habits. But Philip possessed great perseverance, admirable firmness under adverse circumstances, and an appearance of devotion calculated to make a strong impression on the people, together with that stately reserve which the multitude mistakes for dignity. Notwithstanding this severity of deportment, his manners were affable and gracious when he chose to assume that character. He suffered nothing to stand in the way of his undertakings; he regarded religion and crime as two instruments, of which he equally availed himself without hesitation, according as either was suitable to his purposes; for he seemed to think that the performance of certain exterior rites of devotion, and a strict adherence in religious opinions to the dogmas of Rome, gave him unbounded license in all other respects. He was succeeded by Philip III., his son by his fourth wife, Anna of Austria; Don Carlos, his eldest son, who was accused of a conspiracy against the life of his father, having ended his days in 1568.

Philip III. was not less bigoted or superstitious than his predecessor, but he was less stained with crime, and without the dangerous ambition of his father. A peace with England was concluded in 1604, and an armistice for twelve years with the Netherlands, in 1609; but Spain suffered an irreparable loss in population and wealth by the expulsion of the Moriscoes or descendants of the Moors. They were allowed thirty days to banish themselves, and death was the punishment appointed for such as remained behind after the specified time. By this impolitic act, and the subsequent expulsion of the Jews, Spain lost six hundred thousand of her most industrious inhabitants, besides those who were successively butchered, a loss which transferred five-sixths of her commerce and manufactures to other countries, and reduced the public revenue from thirty to fourteen millions of ducats. After a reign of twenty-two years he died, and was succeeded by his son; A. D. 1621.

Under the reign of Philip IV. Portugal shook off its bonds by a happily conducted revolution, which placed the house of Braganza on the throne in 1640. The war in the Netherlands was renewed, but to no other purpose than to bring about a peace, in 1648, by which the king of Spain acknowledged the independence of the Seven United Provinces. During the thirty years' war France acted against Spain, which was allied to Austria; and this struggle was not even terminated by the peace of Westphalia, but continued till the peace of the Pyrenees, in 1659, by which Rousillon and Perpignan were ceded to France, and a marriage was concerted between the infanta, Maria Theresa, Philip's daughter, and Louis XIV. In 1665 Philip IV. died, leaving for his successor an infant son (Charles II.), only four years of age, during whose minority the queen-dowager, Mary Anne of Austria, governed the kingdom, while she resigned herself to the government of her confessor, a jesuit, and by birth a German, named Nitard, whom she caused to be appointed inquisitor-general. The king, when eighteen years of age, married a daughter of Philip, duke of Orleans, who by her mother was granddaughter to Charles I. of England; but this marriage producing no issue, on the death of the king, which happened in 1700, the succession to the crown of Spain was contested between Philip, duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, and grandson to Louis XIV. by Maria Theresa

whom the deceased king had in his will named for his immediate successor, and the archduke Charles of Austria, brother to the emperor Joseph. On this occasion, the jealousy which prevailed of the increasing power of the French monarchy, occasioned a grand alliance to be formed between the maritime powers and the house of Austria, to prevent the duke of Anjou from obtaining the crown of Spain, and to place that diadem on the head of the archduke Charles. This occasioned a long and destructive war; but the unexpected death of the emperor Joseph, in 1711, when he was in the 33d year of his age, entirely changed the political aspect of Europe; and Charles, who had assumed the title of king of Spain, and entered Madrid in triumph, in consequence of the wonderful successes of the earl of Peterborough succeeding his brother in the empire, that idea of maintaining the balance of power in Europe, which had procured the archduke such powerful support against the pretensions of Philip, now pointed out the bad policy of suffering the empire and the kingdom of Spain to be again held by the same sovereign. This, together with the reverse of fortune which had happened to Charles, by the defeat at Almanza, brought about the peace of Utrecht, which confirmed the crown of Spain to Philip, but stripped it of all those valuable European appendages which had for many years been annexed to that monarchy; Belgium, Naples, Sicily, and Milan being resigned to Austria; Sardinia to Savoy, and Minorca and Gibralter to England.

To prevent, as much as possible, the danger apprehended from two kingdoms being possessed by one prince of the house of Bourbon, Philip V. solemnly renounced his right to the crown of France, in case the succession should happen to devolve upon him; and his brothers, the dukes of Berri and Orleans, on their parts renounced all claim to the crown of Spain; but as there has not been wanting lineal decendants to succeed to the sovereignty of each kingdom, the collateral branches have not had occasion to make known to the world how far they consider themselves bound by these solemn acts to deprive themselves of their natural rights, which acts might otherwise have been found weak restraints upon their ambition. Many important conquests were made by the navy of Great Britain in the Mediterranean, during the war for the succession, and the strength and resources of Spain were in every respect greatly exhausted by it. The provinces of Valencia, Catalonia, and Arragon, which had adhered to the interest of Charles, severely felt the resentment of Philip, when he became established on the throne; all the remains of liberty which those people had been allowed to retain since the Gothic kings, were abolished, and the sovereign assumed an absolute power over the lives and fortunes of his subjects.

Cardinal Alberoni, an Italian, who became minister to Philip IV. soon after he married his second wife, the princess Elizabeth, daughter of the duke of Parma (1714), was formed for enterprize and intrigue; he laboured indefatigably to restore the kingdom to something of its former consequence; and by his attention and superior talents the Spanish navy was greatly augmented. His designs were so bold and extensive, that for a short time they seemed likely to effect great changes in the political system of Europe; and in 1717 Spain refused to ratify the peace of Utrecht. All these ideal projects were, however, at once disconcerted by the British court, in sending a fleet into the Mediterranean, which, without any previous declaration of war, attacked the naval force of Spain, at Cape Passaro, near Sicily (August, 1718), and took or destroyed the greatest part of their ships. This decided step on the part of England soon procured the dismissal of Alberoni, and at the same time gave birth to the quadruple alliance between Great Britain, France, Holland, and Germany.

In 1739 great misunderstandings arose between the courts of Madrid and London, in respect to the right which the subjects of the latter

claimed to cut logwood on the Spanish main, and from the conduct of the *guarda-costas* of the former in the West Indies, in seizing upon and confiscating British merchant-ships there. These disputes gave rise to a war, the principal event of which was the taking of Porto Bello by the English. Philip V. died in 1746, and was succeeded by Ferdinand VI., his son by his first queen, who reigned thirteen years, and dying without issue, was succeeded by his half-brother Charles III., then king of the two Sicilies.

Under the reign of Charles III. the Bourbon family compact of 1761 involved Spain, to its injury, in the war between England and France. The expedition against Algiers likewise miscarried; as did the siege of Gibraltar, in the war of 1797–83. Yet the internal administration improved, as was seen in the advancement of agriculture, commerce, and the useful arts, while the population was considerably on the increase. The power of the inquisition also was restricted, and the secret opposition of the jesuits annihilated at a blow, by the "pragmatic sanction" of 1767, which banished them from all the Spanish dominions, and confiscated their property. The grossest superstition, however, still abounded, and a strict observance of the most frivolous ceremonies of the church was regarded as obligatory and indispensable. Charles IV. ascended the throne in 1788. The progress of improvement was still observable while the able Florida Blanca conducted the affairs of the nation. But he was superseded, in 1792, by Godoy, whose administration was as void of plan as it was injurious to the state, and greatly exasperated the people; so that the fall of the most fortunate and proudest favourite of modern times, was immediately followed by that of the royal family. Spain at first entered with zeal into the war against the French republic; but the favourite ruined all, by hastening to conclude the discreditable peace of Basle, by which Spain resigned half of St. Domingo; on which occasion Godoy received the title of "Prince of Peace." He then concluded with the republic the important offensive and defensive alliance of St. Ildefonso, in 1796, and declared war against Great Britain; but being defeated at sea, Spain lost Trinidad, by the peace of Amiens, in 1802. The prince withdrew from the conduct of affairs, but retained his influence, and rose to high dignities. In 1801 military operations were commenced against Portugal, which was obliged to cede Olivença, at the peace of Badajos; while France took possession of Parma, and made its duke king of Etruria, in 1801; in consequence of which Spain ceded Louisiana to Napoleon, who, in 1803, sold it to the United States.

Charles IV., in the war between Great Britain and France in 1803, having purchased permission to remain neutral, by the payment of a monthly tribute of one million piastres to Napoleon, the British seized the Spanish frigates which were carrying the products of the American mines to Cadiz, in 1804, and Spain was compelled to declare war. The victory of the British at Trafalgar, October 21, 1805, destroyed its naval power; the bold Miranda excited the desire for independence in Spanish America, in 1806; and Napoleon overthrew the throne of the Bourbons in Naples. The prince of peace now called on the Spanish nation to arm against "the common enemy;" and Napoleon, therefore, sent a Spanish army, under Romana, to Denmark, and another, under O'Farrill, to Tuscany. October 27, 1807, he concluded a secret treaty at Fontainbleau, respecting the division of Portugal; and twenty-eight thousand French soldiers, maintained by Spain, marched over the Pyrenees, and were joined by eleven thousand Spaniards. The family quarrels of the royal family favoured the plans of the French ruler in Spain. At the instigation of Godoy, Charles IV. wrote to Napoleon, stating that his son Ferdinand, prince of Asturias, had intended to dethrone him, and to deprive his mother of life, so that he ought to be excluded from the succession. The junta, however, unanimously acquitted the prince and the other prisoners; but Godoy in-

duced Ferdinand to ask pardon of the king and queen; on which the king caused the letter to be published in the gazette of Madrid, and issued a decree granting pardon to the prince on account of his repentance. The other prisoners were banished, and thus ended the process of the Escurial. In the meanwhile French troops entered Spain. Charles IV. received them as allies; but, on a sudden, the court prepared to leave Aranjuez for Seville; and it was rumoured that the royal family intended to go to Mexico. Nothing would now satisfy the people but the dismissal of the prince of peace. This was done; on the next day, March 19, 1808, Charles IV. resigned the crown in favour of his son, and on the 24th Ferdinand made his public entry into Madrid, which had been occupied by Murat, commander of the French troops, the day previous. Ferdinand informed Napoleon of his assumption of the royal power, while Charles made it known to him that he had retracted his resignation. It required not the keen eye of the emperor to discern that the affairs of the royal family were most wretchedly embroiled, and he failed not to profit by it, but caused the whole family to be conveyed to Bayonne, where he himself arrived April 15. During the meeting at Bayonne, a commotion, attended with bloodshed, took place at Madrid between the French and Spaniards, the latter, excited by the arrogance of their visitors, having attacked them. Joseph Bonaparte, accompnied by all the ministers of Ferdinand VII., entered Madrid, as the future monarch of Spain; but some parts of the country would not acknowledge him so easily. Supine as the Spaniards appeared in the first instance, it could not be expected that a change of dynasties, or rather a transfer of one large country to the dominions of another, could be effected without some opposition; yet had it not been for the energetic support of Great Britain, the struggle could not have lasted long.

The historian of the Peninsular war forcibly and truly observes, that "the imbecility of Charles IV., the vileness of Ferdinand, and the corruption of Godoy, were undoubtedly the proximate causes of the calamities that overwhelmed Spain; but the primary cause, that which belongs to history, was the despotism arising from the union of a superstitious court with a sanguinary priesthood; a despotism which, by depressing knowledge and contracting the public mind, sapped the foundation of all military as well as civil virtues, and prepared the way for invasion. No foreign potentate would have attempted to steal into the fortresses of a great kingdom, if the prying eyes, and the thousand clamorous tongues belonging to a free press, had been ready to expose his projects, and a well disciplined army present to avenge the insult; but Spain, being destitute of both, was first circumvented by the wiles, and then ravaged by the arms of Napoleon. She was deceived and fettered because the public voice was stifled; she was scourged and torn because her military institutions were decayed.

"From the moment that an English force took the field, the Spaniards ceased to act as principals in a contest carried on in the heart of their country, and involving their existence as an independent nation. They were self-sufficient, and their pride was wounded by insult; they were superstitious, and their religious feelings were roused to fanatic fury by an all-powerful clergy, who feared to lose their own rich endowments; but after the first burst of indignation the cause of independence created little enthusiasm. Horrible barbarities were exercised on all French soldiers thrown by sickness or the fortune of war into the power of the invaded, and a dreadful spirit of personal hatred was kept alive by the exactions and severe retaliations of the invaders; yet no great and general exertion to drive the latter from the soil was made, at least none was sustained with steadfast courage in the field. Manifestoes, decrees, and lofty boasts, like a cloud of canvass covering a rotten hull, made a gallant ap-

pearance, when real strength and firmness were nowhere to be found. The Spanish insurrection presented, indeed, a strange spectacle. Patriotism was seen supporting a vile system of government; a popular assembly working for the restoration of a despotic monarch; the higher classes seeking a foreign master; the lower armed in the cause of bigotry and misrule. The upstart leaders, secretly abhorring freedom though governing in her name, trembled at the democratic activity they had themselves excited; they called forth all the bad passions of the multitude, and repressed the patriotism that would regenerate as well as save. The country suffered the evils, without enjoying the benefits of a revolution; for while tumults and assassinations terrified or disgusted the sensible part of the community, a corrupt administration of the resources extinguished patriotism, and neglect ruined the armies. The peasant-soldier, usually flying at the first onset, threw away his arms and returned to his home, or, attracted by the license of the *partidas*, joined the banners of men who, for the most part, originally robbers, were as oppressive to the people as the enemy, and these *guerilla* chiefs would, in their turn, have been as quickly exterminated, had not the French, pressed by Wellington's battalions, been obliged to keep in large masses; this was the secret of the Spanish constancy. It was the copious supplies from England, and the valour of the Anglo-Portuguese troops, that supported the war, and it was the gigantic vigour with which the duke of Wellington resisted the fierceness of France, and sustained the weakness of three inefficient cabinets, that delivered the peninsula."

The people in Asturias first took up arms; Arragon, Seville, and Badajos followed. Palafox carried from Bayonne to Saragossa the order of the prince of Asturias that the people should arm; and the supreme junta received permission to assemble the cortes. Early in June the junta at Seville had issued a proclamation of war, and the French squadron at Cadiz surrendered to the Spaniards. Six days later an insurrection broke out in Portugal, and the alliance of Great Britian with the Spanish nation was proclaimed. The great struggle now commenced. Marshal Bessieres was successful in the battle at Medina del Rio Secco over General Cuesta; but the previous defeat of Dupont at Baylen, decided the retreat of the French from Madrid, and Castanos entered the city. General Romana had secretly embarked his troops at Funen, and landed in Spain; and Wellesley was victorious over the French under Junot, at Vimeira, on which the French general capitulated the day after at Cintra, and soon after evacuated Portugal. Napoleon advanced with a new army as far as the Ebro, and on the 10th of September Soult defeated the centre of the great Spanish army. Victor and Lefebvre's victory on the 11th, at Espinosa, opened the way to Asturia and the northern coast; and, in consequence of the success of Lannes at Toleda, great numbers of fugitives took shelter in Saragossa. The mountain pass of Somo Sierra was taken by assault, by the French and Poles, under Napoleon and Bessieres, and the French army appeared before Madrid, which surrendered December 4. The French gained many victories and took many fortresses; but the conquerors remained masters only of the places which they occupied, as the guerillas everywhere surrounded and harassed them.

Austria now declared war, and Napoleon was obliged, in January, 1809, to leave the conduct of the war to his marshals. Two objects chiefly occupied the French generals in that and the following year—the re-conquest of Portugal, and the march over the Sierra Morena to Cadiz. The British had become masters of Portugal. Sir Arthur Wellesley advanced from Lisbon, by the way of Alcantara, up the Tagus, and Cuesta joined him near Truxillo, while general Sir Robert Wilson advanced over Placenzia, and Venegas, and the Spanish general, from the Sierra Morena, towards Madrid. This bold plan of attack was frustrated by the battle of Talavera.

The British, indeed, were victorious over Joseph, Victor, and Jourdan; but not being sufficiently supported by the Spaniards, and being threatened by Soult and Ney advancing on either flank, they were obliged to retire to the frontiers of Portugal; after which Venegas also began to retreat, and was defeated by Joseph at Almonacid, as was Wilson by Ney in the passes of Baros. Madrid thus escaped a siege, and the central junta at Seville now resolved to yield to the universal wish, to assemble the cortes and to nominate a regency. New armies were created, and Arezaga advanced with fifty-five thousand men as far as Ocana, where, however, he was entirely defeated by Mortier. Madrid, therefore, was again saved, but in Catalonia, Arragon, and Biscay, the most desperate struggle was carried on with the bands of the patriots. The Empecinado's troops advanced even to the vicinity of Madrid. In Old Castile several guerilla parties hovered on the French, and in Navarre the troops of Mina were an absolute terror to them. The largest company of them, under the dreaded Marquesito, formerly a colonel in the army, encountered several generals in the open field. In vain did the French establish fortresses on their lines of communication, and endeavour to protect their rear by moveable columns. Yet their plan against Andalusia succeeded. With twenty-two thousand men, the rash Arezaga thought he could maintain the line on the Sierra Morena, fifteen leagues long, entrenched and mined, and having in its centre the fortified pass of Peraperos, against sixty thousand troops, commanded by the best generals of France. Dessolles and Gazan, in January, 1810, took the pass of Despenna-Peras; Sebastiani stormed the defile of St. Estevan, and took the bridges over the Guadalquiver; and on the 21st of January Joseph Bonaparte entered Baylen. Jaen was conquered; Cordova submitted. Sebastiani occupied Granada, and Joseph entered Seville on the 1st of February, from which the junta had fled to Cadiz. This place, the only one which remained in the hands of the Spaniards, and which was defended by sixteen thousand men under Albuquerque, and four thousand English soldiers under Graham, besides the combined British and Spanish fleets, was besieged in February, but all the efforts and offers of the French were in vain. The war in Catalonia and Arragon continued. In Leon, the French conquered Astorga, and then directed their arms against Portugal. In this country, to the north of the Tagus, Wellington commanded a British army of thirty thousand men, and Beresford a Portuguese army nearly sixty thousand strong, besides fifty-two thousand militia. The right wing of Wellington, at Badajos, was joined by twenty thousand Spaniards under Romana, and eight thousand under Ballasteros. The main body of the allied force was posted on the heights of Lisbon, which had been rendered impregnable. The plan of the British commander, therefore, was defensive. Massena began his undertaking in June, by the siege of Cuidad-Rodrigo, which surrendered on the 10th of July, and Ney entered Portugal over the river Coa; but Almeida detained Massena till the 27th of August, when it was obliged to capitulate. Wellington ordered the whole country through which Massena could follow him, to be laid waste; and the latter was consequently compelled to defer his march some time. He was afterwards beaten at Busaco; and Wellington now entered the strong position of Torres-Vedras, which consisted of two lines on the heights of Lisbon, defended by one hundred and seventy well placed works and four hundred and forty-four cannons. Massena found this position unassailable, and retreated, after several engagements of little importance, in November, to Santarem. Here he remained till March, 1811, when he was compelled, by want of provisions, to evacuate Portugal entirely. But the French were victorious at other points. Suchet, in January, 1811, took the important fortress of Tortosa, in Catalonia; and in the following June, after a murderous assault of five days, the fortress of Tarragona. Soult took the frontier for-

tresses towards Portugal—Olivença, and Badajos, and Victor defeated General Graham at Chiclana. In the autumn, Suchet marched against Valencia; and after having defeated the army under General Blake, Saguntum fell on the 26th of October, and Valencia surrendered in January, 1812.

Lord Wellington now again entered Spain. He took Cuidad-Rodrigo and Badajos; but he was ill supported by the cortes and the regency. At this time Marmont was at the head of the French army in Portugal; but the loss of the decisive battle of Salamanca, on the 22d of July, 1812, obliged him to give up the defence of Madrid. Wellington entered the city on the 22d of August, and the French retired from before Cadiz about the same time, thus withdrawing their forces from the south of Spain, and concentrating them in the eastern and northern parts. After the occupation of Madrid, Wellington followed the enemy to Burgos; but he gave up the siege of the castle of Burgos, after several unsuccessful assaults, as the Spaniards afforded him insufficient support, and the French had received succours. After several engagements, he transferred his head-quarters to Freynada, on the frontier of Portugal, and the French again entered Madrid. At length Napoleon's disasters in Russia decided the fate of the peninsula. Soult was recalled in the beginning of 1813, with thirty thousand men, from Spain. Suchet left Valencia in July, but delivered Tarragona, which was besieged by Bentinck, in August, and withstood Clinton on the Lobregat. But Joseph had been obliged to leave Madrid again, and Wellington had occupied Salamanca. The French army, commanded by Joseph Bonaparte and Jourdan, retreated to Vittoria. Here Wellington overtook the enemy, and gained the splendid victory of Vittoria; after which the French army, pursued by Graham and Hill, retired in disorder over the Pyrenees to Bayonne, and lost all its baggage. The victors immediately invested Pampeluna. Count Abisbal occupied the pass of Pancorbo. Graham besieged St. Sebastian, and Wellington entered France on the 9th of July. In the meantime, Napoleon, then in Dresden, had appointed Marshal Soult his lieutenant, and commander-in-chief of his armies in Spain. He united the beaten corps, and opposed a considerable force to the victor. On the 24th of July the struggle began in the Pyrenees, and was maintained until August on every point. Wellington took St. Sebastian by assault, after having several times repulsed the enemy, who approached to deliver the garrison. It was not, however, till the 7th of October that he left the Pyrenees, and passed the Bidassoa. After Pampeluna had fallen, no French soldier was left on the Spanish territory, except in Barcelona, and a few other places in Catalonia. Wellington now attacked the enemy on the fortified banks of the Nivelle, and Soult retreated into the camp of Bayonne. But until Wellington had passed the Nive, and had repulsed several attacks, it was not possible for him to obtain a secure footing in the hostile country. His head-quarters were at St. Jean de Luz. Thence he repulsed Suchet's attacks on the Gave. On the 28th of February he fought a battle with Soult at Orthes, by which the latter was driven from his strong position, and obliged to retreat, in great disorder, to the Upper Garonne. Wellington followed the French, under Soult, to Toulouse, where a sanguinary engagement took place on the 10th of April; and the occupation of France by the allied armies put an end to the war.

The cortes had already held its first session, and had resolved that Ferdinand VII. should swear to preserve the constitution, before he should be recognized as king. The treaty of Valençay, between Ferdinand and Napoleon, was made void by declaring all the acts of the king during his captivity null. On the 14th of May, 1814, he entered Madrid; the people, dissatisfied with the new taxes which had been imposed by the cortes, received him with acclamation, and the friends of the cortes and King Joseph

were persecuted with the greatest rigour. Freemasonry was abolished and the inquisition revived; the conventual estates were restored, and the jesuits recalled, and reinstated in all the rights and property of which they had been deprived since 1767. And, although the king had solemnly promised a new constitution, liberty of the press, &c., he regarded none of his promises, and reigned with absolute power. The army, however, was highly dissatisfied with these proceedings, and guerillas, or bands of soldiers, infested the interior. Even the lower classes, though averse to liberal principles, were discontented with the severity of the government, while the better classes were divided into the hostile factions of the serviles and the liberals. Those councillors who ventured to remonstrate with the king, as Empecinado, Ballasteros, &c., were banished or thrown into prison. From 1814 to 1819, there were twenty-five changes in the ministry, mostly sudden, and attended with severities. They were produced by the camarilla, or persons in the personal service of the king. Every attempt to save the state was frustrated by such counsellors, and the overthrow of this ancient monarchy was accelerated by the loss of the American colonies. The army was the instrument of its fall; several conspiracies had been organized by the officers for the restoration of the constitution of the cortes; and Portier, Mina, Lacy, and Vidal, were successively the leaders of the conspirators. Mina had been obliged to save himself by flight; the others had been executed, and their friends had suffered on the rack, or been thrown into prison.

The army was indisposed to the American service, for which it was destined, and the officers favourable to the constitution of the cortes took advantage of this state of feeling to effect their own purposes; whole regiments had determined not to embark, and the commander himself, O'Donnel, conde del Abisbal, was in the secret. But, finding his ambitious project of becoming dictator of the monarchy frustrated by the civil authority, he caused a division of troops which had given the signal of insurrection to be disarmed (July 8, 1819), and the officers, 123 in number, to be arrested. The embarkation of the troops was fixed for January; but on the 1st of the month, four battalions under Riego, proclaimed the constitution of 1812, surrounded the head quarters of General Callejo, who had succeeded O'Donnel in the command, took possession of the town of Isla de Leon, and delivered the officers arrested in July, among whom was Quiroga. The insurgents were unsuccessful in their attack on Cadiz, but occupied La Caracca, where the naval arsenal, a ship of the line, and other vessels of war, with some transports, fell into their hands. Quiroga declared, in the name of the army of the nation—the title assumed by the insurgents—that it was their purpose to obtain from the king the acceptance of the constitution. Riego, at the head of a troop of two thousand five hundred men, now occupied Algesiras, entered Malaga, and after some fighting with O'Donnel, advanced through Ecija and Cordova to Antequera; while the national army, under Quiroga, in addresses to the king and to the nation, declared their only object was to save their country by the restoration of the constitution, which had already been accepted by the nation. Risings now took place in all quarters in favour of the constitution of the cortes; the royal forces joined the insurgents; Freyre himself was obliged to proclaim the constitution in Seville, and Ferdinand, abandoned by his own troops, was compelled to yield to the general cry, and, by proclamation, declared himself ready to summon the cortes of 1812, and accept the constitution of that year. On the same day a general amnesty was proclaimed. On the 9th a provisory junta of eleven members was named, to conduct affairs till the meetings of the cortes, and Ferdinand swore to observe the constitution in presence of this body, and of the municipal authorities of Madrid. The inquisition was abolished, as inconsistent with the constitution, and obnoxious ministers, &c., were succeeded

by others favourable to constitutional principles. In place of the council of Castile and that of the Indies, a supreme judicial tribunal, with appropriate subordinate courts, was established, national guards were organized in the provinces, the municipal authorities were made to conform to the constitution, and the cortes finally assembled. Much was done to heal the wounds of the country; but an apostolical junta established itself on the frontiers of Portugal, and bands of peasants, monks, and guerilla soldiers were formed, for the purpose of restoring the privileges of the crown and the clergy.

The second session of the cortes began in March, 1821, who declared the whole country in danger, and in a state of siege. The command of the armed force was now given to Morillo, and quiet was in some measure restored. But the ultra-liberals, or exaltados, as they were called, were not a little excited by the events in Naples and Piedmont, in 1821, and the kingdom was in so disturbed a state that an extraordinary cortes was summoned in September. At the same time Mexico declared itself independent; Lima was occupied by the Chilians, under San Martin; and the Spanish part of the island of St. Domingo was lost by its union with Hayti. Upon which the cortes urged the king to appoint an abler ministry, and, after some contention, his majesty yielded to their wishes. In January, 1822, the cortes declared themselves ready to acknowledge America as a kingdom independent of Spain, but united with her under Ferdinand VII., their common sovereign. The deputies sent to America, however, could effect nothing on these conditions, and the session of the cortes was concluded on the 14th of February.

At the outset of the third session the moderate liberal party prevailed, and tranquillity was gradually restored to the internal affairs of the country, when it began to be threatened from without. The strong sanitary cordon of French troops along the Pyrenees, and the intrigues of the exiles, led the government to suspect that the disturbances excited among the peasants in Navarre and Catalonia, and the bands of "soldiers of the faith," so called, were instigated by the French government. The cortes therefore armed the volunteer national guards; but the pecuniary resources were chiefly in the hands of the supporters of despotism. The royal guards, in spite of the opposition of Morillo, their commander, entered Madrid, July 7, but Ballasteros, at the head of the national guards, defeated them, and they fled into the royal palace; but the king, who favoured them originally, now showed himself irresolute. They were unable to resist the popular force, but would have been allowed to retire, if they had not again fired on the national guards, who then fell upon them, and killed or wounded the greater part. The anilleros, or moderate party, who had been in favour of a chamber of peers and the extension of the royal power, now joined the communeros, or popular party, and all the ministers resigned.

The new ministers acted in conformity with the views of the communeros; and the king, whose authority had sunk entirely, consented to all they proposed. Many persons of rank, including bishops, were banished. General Elio was executed; but the guards were treated with great leniency. The king again declared his adherence to the constitution; but the apostolical troops in Biscay, Navarre, and Catalonia, continued their revolting cruelties. Under the marquis Mataflorida a regency of the friends of absolute government was established at Seo d'Urgel, near the French frontier, in August, 1832. It issued orders, in the name of the "imprisoned king," for the restoration of everything to the state in which it had been before the 7th of March, 1820. The troops of the apostolical party, after much bloodshed, were beaten by Mina and Milans. Generals Espinosa, Torrijos, and El Pastor distinguished themselves against Quesada, a Trappist, and others. The regency fled to France in November,

1822, and it was obvious that its cause was not that of the nation. No troops of the line or national guards, no important cities nor individuals, went over to them. Some "soldiers of the faith," however, still continued in Spain, particularly those of Bessiéres, Ullmann, &c. At no period was Spain in a more unsettled state than now, and nothing less than a desperate struggle between despotism and revolution could be calculated on. The French had acceded to the principle of an armed intervention pronounced by Austria, Russia, and Prussia, in relation to Spain; and the French ambassador at Madrid received orders to advise a change in the constitution, as the condition on which the continuance of peace between the two countries must depend; and, in order to enable Ferdinand VII. to make such changes freely, he must first of all be restored to the full enjoyment of sovereign power. The same demand, and even in bolder terms, was made by the ministers of Prussia, Austria, and Russia, while Great Britain advised the cortes to yield, and offered her mediation. The Spanish government repelled with indignation the interference of the foreign powers, and the threatened discontinuance of diplomatic intercourse took place. The foreign ambassadors were recalled from Madrid. One hundred thousand French soldiers were assembled with the soldiers of the faith at Perpignan and Bayonne, and the cortes summoned the national guards to serve with the troops of the line; but the attempts to raise an army were unsuccessful, because the bands of the absolutists gave full employment to the troops of the line and the national guards in the various provinces.

The duke of Angoulême, at the head of the French army, issued a proclamation to the Spaniards, declaring the object of the French was only to aid them, and that France desired nothing but the deliverance of Spain from the evils of revolution. His army then passed the Bidassoa; a junta was established, who formed a provisional government, declared the king the sole depository of sovereign power, and that no change in the government should be recognized but such as the king should make of his own free choice; and all the decrees of the cortes were declared void. Great Britain remained neutral, or rather affected neutrality, for the government allowed the exportation of arms and ammunition to Spain, and, in return, the ports of the New World were opened to her ships. A long, tedious, and cruel warfare was now kept up by the Spanish troops under the control of Ballasteros, Mina, L'Abisbal, and Morillo, against the French, and the supporters of the "absolute king." On the 24th of May, the duke of Angoulême entered Madrid amid the acclamations of the populace. He nominated a regency, consisting of the duke of Infantado, the duke of Montemar, the bishop of Osma, the baron d'Eroles, and Don Gomez Calderon; but they had no pecuniary resources, and no power, if they had the will, to prevent the furious eruption of party hatred.

The cortes had in vain tried to excite a general guerilla war. On account of the want of money, they decreed the seizure of all the property of persons of the opposite party, a forced loan of 200,000,000 of reals, and the coining of the superfluous church plate, by which measures the hatred of the people was still more increased. Yet the ministers did not dare to propose to the cortes the mediation offered by England, through Sir W. A'Court, the British minister. The king refused to go to Cadiz; and a regency of three members, with royal powers, was appointed, because the case of moral incapacity on the part of the king, provided for by the constitution, had occurred. On the 12th of June, the cortes and the king, with the regency, departed for Cadiz; but the people were so furious against the constitutionalists, that the authorities called in the aid of the French. Meanwhile the regency in Madrid declared all the members of the cortes who had participated in the session of the 11th, when the king was declared morally incapable, to be traitors; but more it could not do:

it was so destitute of resources that it was even supported by French money. The duke of Angoulême took possession of Cadiz on the 4th of October. An act of the cortes had already reinvested the king with absolute power, and requested him to retire to the French camp, where he had been received in form by the duke, with cries of "Viva el rey," "Viva la religion!" "Muera la nacion!" &c. Ferdinand's first measure was to declare all the acts of the constitutional government, from March 7, 1820, to October 1, 1823, void, on the ground that during that time the king was acting under compulsion. The partizan warfare still continued to rage with great fierceness, particularly in Catalonia; but the defection of some of the leaders soon after taking place, it appeared fast drawing to a termination; and on the 22d of October, 1823, the duke of Angoulême took his leave of the army of the Pyrenees, which had so successfully accomplished the military objects of its mission.

The political objects of the expedition, to secure a system of mildness and moderation, were frustrated by the bad faith of the Spanish government. In direct violation of the terms of the military capitulations, a persecuting and vindictive policy was adopted towards the former partizans of the constitution. Among the crowds of fugitives were Mina, the count del Abisbal, Morillo, &c. Riego was executed at Madrid, and the king made his entry into the capital on a triumphal car twenty-five feet high, drawn by a hundred men, and amid the rejoicings of the people. It was not, however, to be expected that the excesses of political and religious bigotry would suddenly subside, or that the people would quietly submit to the heavy taxation which the bad state of the finances rendered necessary. A treaty was therefore concluded with France, stipulating for the maintenance of a French force of forty-five thousand men in the country, until the Spanish army could be organized; and the debt due to France for the expenses of the French expedition was fixed at thirty-four millions of francs.

The year 1825 was disturbed by several insurrections of the Carlists, who were anxious to effect the abdication of Ferdinand, and place his brother, Don Carlos, on the throne. Numerous executions and frequent changes of ministry took place, all plainly indicative of the weakness of the government, while the independence of the colonies was acknowledged by foreign powers, and a general interruption of commerce and industry throughout Spain was manifest. In this state the country continued for several subsequent years. In 1827, Spanish subjects were permitted to trade with the Spanish American republics, but under foreign flags, and in the following year Spain was evacuated by the French troops. The sword, the scaffold, exile, and the dungeon had done so much to subdue the national spirit, and to reduce the numbers of the constitutionalists, that when, in 1830, the French revolution produced such effects in Belgium, and excited so much alarm in Germany and other neighbouring countries, it scarcely awakened the popular feeling on this side the Pyrenees; the troubles of Spain were now mostly confined to the struggle for power between the more or less absolute of the absolutists, the former having been favoured by the views of Don Carlos, then heir-presumptive to the throne, and the latter by the king. But on the birth of a royal princess, in 1830, by Maria Christina, his fourth wife, a royal decree rendered the crown hereditary in the female line, in default of male heirs, and entirely changed the relation of the prince to the throne. During a severe attack of illness, Ferdinand, at the instigation of the friends of Don Carlos, in 1832, renewed the Salic law, which rendered the throne of Spain hereditary only in the male line, but, with that vacillating conduct which is the sure mark of a weak mind, his majesty, on his recovery, formally protested against the decree, which he stated to have been extorted from him, and he then again declared his daughter to be his only legitimate successor to the throne of

Spain. Shortly after this, Don Carlos was banished from the kingdom; and Ferdinand, who was in his fiftieth year, died suddenly of apoplexy, on the 29th of September, 1833.

The death of Ferdinand VII. became the signal for the breaking out of fresh dissensions. In order still further to fortify the right of his daughter to the throne, he had exercised the prerogative of naming her his successor in his will; and by the same instrument he appointed the queen regent till the infanta Isabella attained the age of eighteen years. Don Carlos, however, claimed the throne in virtue of the Salic law, although it had been repealed, and was never, in fact, practically in force. The rights of Isabella II. were supported by the liberals, the pretensions of Don Carlos by the absolutists. Guided by the counsels of M. Rea, the chief minister, the queen depended upon the support of the constitutionalists for securing the succession to her infant daughter. The strength of the Carlists lay chiefly in Navarre, Catalonia, the Biscayan provinces, Old Castile and Estremadura. The chief strength of the constitutionalists was in Madrid, and the provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, Valencia, and other districts bordering on the Mediterranean. The queen-regent was not slow in adopting vigorous and popular measures to counteract the Carlists. With the aid of the provincial militia and the volunteers, she disbanded the royalist volunteers of the capital, and in Toledo; she also remodelled the post-office laws, the censorship of the press, and public education; while at the same time care was taken not to disturb existing interests and prejudices. Meantime several contests took place between the rival parties, accompanied with the exercise of great cruelties on both sides; but the queen's party was generally successful, and at the close of the year the civil war appeared nearly at an end.

The reciprocal massacre of prisoners had several times occurred, and the deadliest hatred and revenge was manifestly encouraged by both parties; in short, so savagely was the Spanish contest carried on, that the duke of Wellington, from motives of humanity, sent Lord Elliot and Colonel Gurwood on a mission to Spain, to endeavour to put a stop to the cruelties practised by the belligerents, and render the war less bloody and revengeful. The Christinos hesitated at first to enter into any terms with the Carlists, whom they deemed rebels; and although, at length, it was mutually agreed upon to treat the prisoners taken on either side according to the ordinary rules of war, a few months only elapsed before similar barbarities were practised with all their former remorselessness.

In the spring of 1834 a treaty was concluded in London, by the courts of Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, having for its object the pacification of the peninsula. By this quadruple treaty it was agreed—that Spain and Portugal should assist each other in the expulsion from their respective territories of Don Carlos and Don Miguel; that Britain should co-operate by employing a naval force, and that France should assist the contracting parties in any way that they in common accord might determine upon. The war thus continued to rage with unabated fury; but the queen's party obtained an auxiliary force in England, denominated the "British legion," without the sanction, though with the connivance of ministers. They were ill-equipped and ill-clad, nor could anything be managed worse than their commissariat. Notwithstanding, they fought bravely, and contributed in no slight degree to the success of the queen's cause. On the 5th of May, 1836, some fortified works, which had cost the Carlists three or four months to erect, and through the centre of which ran the high road to Hernani, were gallantly carried by the auxiliary legion; while two armed steamers, commanded by Lord John Hay, lent very opportune aid. On this occasion the loss of the British in killed and wounded amounted to eight hundred, among whom were upwards of seventy officers. About this time Mendizabel, the Spanish prime minister,

from whose abilities much had been anticipated, but who had not been zealously supported by the cortes, resigned, and was succeeded by M. Isturitz. Another violent change was, however, near at hand. At Malaga, Cadiz, Seville, and Cordova, the Cadiz constitution of 1812 had been proclaimed, and provincial juntas established, wholly independent of the queen's authority. On the 3d of August a movement commenced in Madrid; but it was put down, and the capital declared in a state of siege; but on the 12th the insurrection became more serious, and a regiment of provincial militia forced their way into the apartments of the queen-regent, and obtained from her a promise of the acceptance of the constitution. This produced a revolution in the metropolis. Isturitz, the prime minister, made his escape to Lisbon, and thence to England. General Quesada, the military governor of Madrid, was seized by the populace, and inhumanly put to death. Ultimately, the constitution was proclaimed by the queen-regent, subject to the revision of the cortes, and a new ministry of decided liberals formed, of which Mendizabel was minister of finance. The new government commenced with vigour. The sum of 2,000,000*l.* was sought to be raised by a forced loan; a conscription of fifty thousand men was called for, to send against the Carlists; the property of emigrant Carlists was confiscated, and the example of France and Portugal was proposed to be followed, by the extinction of the remaining moiety of tithe, leaving the clergy stipendaries of the state, or dependent on voluntary contributions.

On the 16th of June, 1837, the revised constitution of the Spanish monarchy was proclaimed. Its articles appear to be of a popular character. Among them are the following:—1. All Spaniards may print and publish freely their opinions, without submitting them to previous censorship, by merely conforming to the laws. 2. All Spaniards are admissible to offices and public functions according to their merit and capacity. 3. The power of making laws resides in the *cortes* and the king. The cortes to consist of two legislative assemblies equal in rights and power—a senate and a congress of deputies; the senators must be forty years old, possessed of an independent fortune, and are chosen for life. To the congress of deputies each province to return one deputy, at least, for every fifty thousand souls of its population; the deputies are elected for three years. 4. The person of the king sacred and inviolate, and not responsible; the ministers to be held responsible. The powers of the crown are analogous to those of the British sovereign. 5. The civil list of the king and royal family to be fixed at the commencement of each reign. 6. The succession to be in the order of primogeniture, preferring the male to the female branch. 7. The cortés may exclude from the succession persons they deem incapable to govern, or who have been guilty of any act for which they ought to lose their right to the crown. 8. Independence of the judges and judicial administration are secured.

In June, 1835, Colonel De Lacy Evans was appointed by the Spanish authorities to command the said British auxiliary legion to co-operate with the queen's troops against Don Carlos. On the 1st of October, 1836, a vigorous assault was made on the lines of the British legion at Sebastian by the Carlists, who made an unsuccessful attempt to carry them. Both parties fought bravely. The Carlists charging down-hill, frequently sallied from their works in force, but each time were driven back at the point of the bayonet. The conflict lasted twelve hours. General Evans lost three hundred and seventy-six men and thirty-seven officers killed and wounded. The loss of the Carlists in killed and wounded was estimated at one thousand men. In December, 1836, the siege of Bilboa was raised, by the operations of the combined British and Christinos forces. General Espartero, assisted by a small band of British engineers, artillerymen, and sailors, entered the city of Bilboa on Christmas-day, at the head of his

army, after a series of contests with the enemy. The works raised by the Carlists were of great strength, and nothing but the enthusiasm of the troops could have enabled them to overcome the difficulties. A vote of thanks to the liberators of Bilboa was moved in the cortes, and the official gazette of January 4, 1837, contained a royal decree, in which the queen-regent expressed, in the name of her daughter, her gratitude to General Espartero and his army, the national and auxiliary British force, and to all those, whether Spaniards or English, who took part in the engagements of the 24th and 25th of December. A month had scarcely elapsed, however, before the affairs of Don Carlos appeared to revive; General Evans having sustained a defeat before St. Sebastian, and the queen's armies under generals Saarsfield and Espartero having found it necessary to make simultaneous retreats. These reverses made such an impression, that at a secret sitting of the cortes on the 30th of March, the acting war-minister described Spain to be "without credit at home or abroad—with a depreciated and ill-concocted revenue—with an army in the worst state as to subordination or military dicipline—while the chiefs were at variance with each other." It was originally arranged that Espartero, Saarsfield, and Evans, should move simultaneously to the points of attack; but owing to mismanagement or treachery, this plan was not carried into operation. On the 10th of March, General Evans broke ground from St. Sebastian, and commencing his operations by an attack upon the heights of Ametzagana, at the eastern extremity of the chain of hills, carried that position. On the 16th he prepared to make his decisive attack upon the town of Hernani, and succeeded in gaining possession of the wooded heights which rise above it on the north. All was prepared for a forward movement, when he discovered, most unexpectedly, that the Carlists had been so powerfully reinforced as to render an advance desperately hazardous, and almost at the same moment the whole of his left wing was thrown into confusion, by the appearance in its rear of three battalions of Carlists, who, under cover of the night, had been brought, by a circuitous march, to the right bank of the Urumea, and having passed that river at Axterragaga, again moved in the direction of the north-west. The regiment on the extreme left of the Anglo-Christinos' line, thus finding itself attacked in front, on the left flank and in the rear, made a rapid lateral movement to the right, which was soon accelerated to a panic flight. The Anglo-Christinos are said to have lost between fifteen hundred and two thousand in killed, wounded, and prisoners—and immeasurably more in moral influence.

The next accounts from Spain showed that the cause of the queen was somewhat improving. After an obstinate defence by the Carlist troops, General Evans succeeded in carrying Irun, where a dreadful scene of pillage and massacre ensued. Fontarabia soon afterwards capitulated. On the 13th of May, Espartero entered Hernani, after having beaten the Carlists, and taken six hundred of them prisoners. In several other engagements he was also successful. Yet such was the uncertainty of this contest, that in the following month the forces of Don Carlos were almost everywhere successful. On one occasion—the battle of Barbastro—the Carlists gained a great victory, upwards of two thousand five hundred Christinos being put *hors du combat*. This was the most sanguinary engagement that had been fought since the commencement of the civil war. While Don Carlos was advancing towards Upper Catalonia, and preparing to place himself in the centre of the mountains of that province, the revolutionary hydra had raised its head with more hardihood than ever. And, to add to the calamities of the Christinos, General Evans, with the greatest part of the officers belonging to the legion, had abandoned the cause as hopeless, and returned to England; only fifteen hundred remaining behind, who formed a brigade under the command of Colonel O'Don-

nell. The cause of the queen now wore a most unpromising aspect. Her troops had sustained severe defeats, and, in September, the forces of Carlos were actually investing the capital. On the 24th of August, General Buerens was defeated, with the loss of fifteen hundred men, while endeavouring to repel one of the armies of Don Carlos, twelve thousand strong, which was attempting to pass between Daroca and Saragossa. On the 14th of September, the remains of the British legion, under General O'Donnell, after their advance to Pampeluna, were attacked by a superior body of Carlists, who carried Andoain, where O'Donnell had fortified himself, and drove the queen's troops back to Hernani. The British auxiliaries bore the whole brunt of the attack, and twenty-five English officers were killed.

On the 11th of September, the Spanish government received intelligence that Cabrera was preparing to march against the capital, and that his movement was to be supported by the bulk of Don Carlos' army. Martial law was immediately proclaimed. The troops and national guard mustered; a "sacred battalion" was formed to guard the two queens; and cannon was stationed in the most exposed and dangerous quarters of the city. Again the fortune of war inclined to the Christinos side. Don Carlos, who had invested Madrid, was compelled to make a precipitate retreat, with great loss, and was closely pursued by Espartero. In Navarre and Valladolid, also, the queen's troops gained some considerable advantages; and Carlos was driven to his old quarters in the north, and Espartero, having taken possession of many strong places, appeared confident of successful results from the next winter campaign. In November, the dissolution of the cortes took place, and a new cabinet was formed, in which Espartero was appointed minister of war, and at the same time continued as commander-in-chief of the army of the north. The English legion had been wholly disbanded, after a correspondence between its commander, O'Donnell, and the Spanish general, which had reached the height of asperity. The men composing the legion had given up their arms, and were in the most deplorable state of destitution.

At the commencement of 1838, the town of Morella was captured by the Carlists. This was of the greatest importance to them, as it constituted the point of junction between the kingdoms of Valencia and Arragon, and was admirably fortified. Twelve hundred prisoners, twelve pieces of cannon, and provisions for three months, were the fruits of this capture. On the other hand, the Carlists had been defeated in an attempt to obtain possession of Saragossa, and in some minor engagements elsewhere. To which we may add, that on the 26th of April, Espartero attacked and entirely defeated, near Burgos, the force of Count Negri; making two thousand prisoners, of whom two hundred and fifteeen were chiefs and officers. Thus for many succeeding months did victory continue to alternate between the contending parties, though inclining generally to the constitutional side. We shall therefore pass on till we come to an affair of considerable moment, namely, the surrender of Morella—the last stronghold of Cabrera—to the queen's troops, in May, 1840; the garrison remaining prisoners of war. Espartero had no less than fifty thousand men, including two thousand cavalry, and seventy-two pieces of artillery, to reduce this fortress. Balinaseda, the worthy rival of Cabrera in ferocity and rapacity, fell into the snare laid for him by the queen's generals. Believing that he was not pursued, he passed the Douro, and conceived the bold project of surprising the two queens on their way to Madrid and Saragossa, when he was attacked, on the 25th of June, by the constitutional general, Concha, and driven to the Pyrenees. He then retreated into France, but made his appearance again on the 30th, at the head of about five thousand men. He had retired before the queen's troops, fighting to the last; and although, like almost every other chieftain in this sanguinary and long-protracted struggle, he was a monster of cruelty, his firm adherence

to his master's cause until there was no longer any hope of success, merits admiration. He appeared in nearly the last stage of exhaustion, from fatigue and from his wounds, of which he had received no less than fourteen. At this time it was said that but little more than the name of royalty existed in Spain; a military despotism, headed by Espartero, dictating the whole affairs of the nation. The queen-regent Christina, being stripped of nearly every particle of power, made up her mind to leave Spain before Espartero and the new ministers arrived. She saw them, however, at Valencia, and expressed her determination to abdicate the regency, in consequence of the difficulties which environed her. She was then told, that if she insisted upon abdicating, and on retiring to Naples, she must leave the young queen Isabella to the guardianship of the nation, and must also give up the public property vested in her as queen and regent. To this she consented, and the ministers accordingly announced the event to the nation. Shortly afterwards, the young queen Isabella II. made her public entry into Madrid, attended by Espartero, &c., amid the acclamations of the inhabitants.

In May, 1841, the duke of Victory (Espartero) was elected by a majority of 76 votes as sole regent of Spain during the minority of Isabella; the queen-mother, Christina, having previously sought refuge in France. For a considerable time after this event, the new regent possessed the confidence of the people, and effected many useful reforms in the state; but having given offence to the clergy by the appropriation of part of the ecclesiastical revenues to secular purposes, a powerful party continued to harass and distract his government; till, at length, the insurrectionary movements in various parts of the country denoted that another crisis was approaching. In June, 1843, Corunna, Seville, and many other towns declared against Espartero, and Madrid surrendered on the 24th of July. On receiving this information, the duke immediately raised the siege of Seville, and started for Cadiz, with four hundred cavalry. He was pursued to Port St. Mary's by General Concha, at the head of five hundred horse, who arrived on the strand only five minutes after the regent had embarked in a boat for the English ship Malabar, of 72 guns. Nogueras, Gomez, and a few other officers escaped with him. A manly and patriotic manifesto was addressed by Espartero to the nation prior to his departure for England; which thus concludes:—"A military insurrection, without the slightest pretext, concluded the work commenced by a mere few; and, abandoned by those whom I so often had led to victory, I am compelled to seek refuge in a foreign land, fervently desiring the felicity of my beloved country. To its justice I recommend those who never abandoned the cause of legitimacy, loyal to the last, even in the most critical moments. In these the state will ever find its most decided assistants." His enemies also addressed a manifesto to the people of Spain, with the alledged view of explaining and justifying the revolution, and also of vindicating themselves and those who co-operated with them in procuring the defection of the army, and the consequent overthrow of Espartero, by means of foreign gold. On the 30th of July, the duke of Baylen assumed the functions of guardian of the queen and the princess her sister. The new ministry adopted the decided course of declaring Queen Isabella of age after the meeting of the cortes, which was appointed to take place on the 15th of October; to which proposal the queen gave her consent. Espartero left Spain, on his voyage to England, on board the Prometheus steam-vessel; and on his arrival at Woolwich he was received with respect by Lord Blomfield, commandant of the royal arsenal, Sir F. Bollyer, &c. Spain, however, still continues subject to unhappy dissensions, which are the inevitable results of her degrading submission to a bigoted priesthood.

THE HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL, anciently called *Lusitania*, is supposed to have been originally colonized by the Phœnicians and Carthaginians; but was taken possession of by the Romans about 250 years before Christ, and became a Roman province under the emperor Augustus. Towards the beginning of the fifth century the Alans, and afterwards the Suabians and the Visigoths, successively made themselves masters of this country. In the eighth century it was overrun by the Moors and Saracens, but was gradually wrested from them by the Christians. Henry, duke of Burgundy, distinguishing himself by his eminent services against the Moors, Alphonso II., king of Castile, gave him his daughter Theresa in marriage, created him earl of Portugal, and in 1110 left him that kingdom. Alphonso Henriques, his son and successor, obtaining a signal victory, in 1136, over the Moors, was created king by the people; and in 1181, at an assembly of the states, the succession of the crown was settled. Alphonso III. added Algarve to the crown of Portugal. In 1383 the legitimate male line of this family becoming extinct in the person of Ferdinand, John I. his natural son, was, two years after, admitted to the crown, and in his reign the Portuguese made settlements in Africa, and discovered the islands of the Azores. In 1482, his great-grandson, John II., received the Jews who had been expelled from Spain, and gave great encouragement to navigation and discoveries. Afterwards, in the reign of King Emanuel, Vasco de Gama discovered a passage to the East Indies by doubling the Cape of Good Hope.

In 1500, Brazil was discovered by Don Pedro Alvarez, and the Portuguese made most valuable discoveries in the East Indies, where they soon erected forts, subdued the neighbouring inhabitants, and at the same time carried on a sanguinary war in Africa. The power of Portugal was then at its height; but in 1580, on the decease of Henry the Cardinal, the male line of the royal family became extinct, and in the succeeding year the kingdom was subdued by Spain. The Portuguese now lost most of the advantages they had obtained under their own monarchs; their possessions in the East Indies, in Brazil, and on the coast of Africa, were neglected, and many of them wrested from them by the new republic of Holland, and by the other maritime powers, while at home the Portuguese were much oppressed; but in 1640, they shook off the Spanish yoke, by electing John, duke of Braganza, a descendant of the old royal family, for their king. This prince, who assumed the title of John IV., drove the Dutch out of Brazil; and from him all the succeeding kings of Portugal have been descended. Alphonso VI. the son of John IV., was dethroned by his brother Peter, who in 1668, concluded a treaty with Spain, by which Portugal was declared an independent kingdom. This was brought about by the mediation of Charles II. of Great Britain, who had married the infanta Catherine, sister to Alphonso and Peter. In 1706, John V. succeeded to the throne on the death of his father. In 1792 a double marriage took place between the courts of Spain and Portugal, a prince of each court marrying a princess of the other court. Although Brazil again belonged to Portugal, its former greatness could not now have been restored even had the princes of the house of Braganza displayed as much vigour and wisdom as some of them showed good intentions. A commercial treaty had been concluded under the first prince of this line, and in 1703,

a new treaty was concluded by the English ambassador, which secured to England the advantages of the newly-discovered gold mines in Brazil. From this time the relations with England continued to become more intimate, until Portugal was no longer in a condition to maintain an independent attitude in European politics. During the long reign of John V., from 1707 to 1750, some vigour was exerted in regard to the foreign relations, and something was attempted for the promotion of the national welfare at home (the restriction on the power of the inquisition, and the formation of an academy of Portuguese history, for example); but in the former case, without decisive consequences, and, in the latter, without a completion of the plans proposed. On the death of John, in 1750, his son Joseph I., prince of the Brazils, succeeded him, and the marquis of Pombal, a vigorous reformer, administered the government, to the universal satisfaction of the people. He attacked the jesuits and the nobility, who during the preceding reigns had exercised a secret influence in the government. The exposure of the power of the jesuits in Paraguay, their conduct at the time of the earthquake in Lisbon (1755), and the conspiracy against the life of the king (1756), led to the suppression of the order; in 1757 they had been deprived of the post of confessors to the royal family, and forbidden the court. Two years after, all the jesuits were banished the kingdom, and their estates were confiscated. The brave count of Schauenburg-Lippe, to whose services against Spain, in 1760, Portugal was so much indebted, likewise reformed the Portuguese army; but soon after his departure, the effects of his improvements disappeared.

On the accession of Maria Francisca Isabella, eldest daughter of Joseph (in 1777), the marquis of Pombal lost the influence which he had possessed for twenty-five years. To him Portugal owed her revival from her previous lethargy; and although many of his useful regulations did not survive his fall, yet the enlightened views he introduced, and the national feeling which he awakened, were not without permanent effects. In 1792, on account of the sickness of the queen, Juan Maria Joseph, prince of Brazil (the title of the prince-royal until 1816), was declared regent; and, in 1799, her malady having terminated in a confirmed mental aberration, the prince was declared regent with full regal powers, but made no change in the policy of the government. His connexions with England involved him in the wars of that country against France; and the Portuguese troops distinguished themselves by their valour in the peninsular campaigns. Commercial distress, the accumulating debt, and the threatening language which Spain was compelled by France to adopt, led to a peace with France in 1797; but the disasters of the French arms in 1799 encouraged the regent to renew hostilities, in alliance with England and Russia.

As soon, however, as Bonaparte had established his authority, Spain was obliged to declare war against Portugal; but it was terminated the same year (1801) by the treaty of Badajos, by which Portugal was obliged to cede Olivença, with the payment of a large sum of money to Spain. Portugal, meanwhile, preserved a mere shadow of independence by the greatest sacrifices, until at last Junot entered the country, and the house of Braganza was declared, by Napoleon, to have forfeited the throne; this impudent declaration arising from the refusal of the prince to seize the English merchandise in his dominions. The regent now threw himself entirely into the arms of the English, and on the 9th of November, 1807, embarked for Brazil. Junot entered the capital the next day, and Portugal was treated as a conquered country. An English force was landed, and, in the northern provinces, numerous bodies of native troops determined to maintain the struggle for freedom; a junta was also established in Oporto to conduct the government. After some hard fighting, the decisive battle of Vimeira took place (August 21, 1808), which was followed

by the convention of Cintra, and the evacuation of the country by the French forces.

During 1808, 1809, and 1810, Portugal was the chief scene of the military contest between Great Britain and France; and the Portuguese subsequently also took an active part in the war of Spanish independence.

On the death of Maria, John VI. ascended the throne of Portugal, and Brazil. This transference of the court of Lisbon into an American colony was followed by important consequences: firstly, that Brazil attempted to withdraw itself from dependence on England; and secondly, that the colony gradually became a separate state. In Portugal, on the contrary the influence of England continued, and the condition of the kingdom was not essentially changed. In 1816, John VI. refused to return to Lisbon, whither a squadron under Sir John Beresford had been sent to convey him; partly, it is said, because he was displeased at the disregard to his rights shown by the congress of Vienna; partly because the unpopularity of the commercial treaty had alienated him from England; but, probably, still more because he was influenced by the visible growth of a Brazilian party which now aimed at independence. Henceforward, indeed, the separation of Portugal from Brazil manifestly approached. The Portuguese of Europe began to despair of seeing the seat of monarchy at Lisbon; the regency there were without strength, all appointments were obtained from the distant court of Rio Janeiro; men and money were drawn away for the Brazilian war on the Rio de la Plata; the army left behind was unpaid; in fine, all the materials of formidable discontent were heaped up in Portugal, when the Spanish revolution broke out, in the beginning of 1820. Six months elapsed without its communicating to Portugal; but in August the garrison of Oporto declared for a revolution, and, being joined on their march to the capital by all the troops on their line, were received with open arms by the garrison of Lisbon; and it was determined to bestow on Portugal a still more popular constitution than that of Spain.

This revolution was unattended by violence or bloodshed. A provisional government was established, which, on the first of October, formed a union with the junta of Oporto. Count Palmella, the head of the royal regency, was despatched to Rio Janeiro with an account of what had happened, and a petition that the king or the prince royal would return to Lisbon. The mode of electing the cortes was settled chiefly in imitation of the Spanish constitution; and the liberal party, which was desirous of the immediate adoption of that constitution, obliged the supreme junta (November 11) to administer the oath of obedience to it to the troops. The regency of Lisbon, by the advice of a Portuguese minister, at once faithful to his sovereign and friendly to the liberty of his country, made an attempt to stem the torrent by summoning an assembly of the cortes. The attempt was too late; but it pointed to the only means of saving the monarchy. The same minister, on his arrival in Brazil, at the end of 1820, advised the king to send his eldest son to Portugal as viceroy, with a constitutional charter, in which the legislature was to be divided into two chambers. He also recommended an assembly of the most respectable Brazilians at Rio Janiero to organize their affairs. But a revolution in that capital speedily brought matters to a crisis; and the popular party, headed by Don Pedro, the king's eldest son, declared for the constitution of Portugal, and the separation of Brazil at the same time.

On the 9th of March, 1821, the articles of the new constitution, securing freedom of person and property, the liberty of the press, legal equality, and the abolition of privileges, the admission of all citizens to all offices, and the sovereignty of the nation, were adopted almost unanimously. There was more diversity of opinion concerning the organization of the chambers, and the royal veto; but large majorities finally decided in favour of one chamber and a conditional veto. After some disturbances in Brazil,

the king sailed for Portugal, but was not permitted to land until he had given his consent to the several acts of the cortes, imposing restrictions on his power. On landing, he immediately swore to observe the new constitution, and concurred, without opposition, to all the succeeding acts of the cortes. The revolutionary cortes were as tenacious of the authority of the mother country as the royal administration; and they accordingly recalled the heir-apparent to Lisbon. But the spirit of independence arose among the Brazilians, who, encouraged by the example of the Spanish Americans, presented addresses to the prince, beseeching him not to yield to the demands of the Portuguese assembly, who desired to make him a prisoner, as they had made his father; but, by assuming the crown of Brazil, to provide for his own safety, as well as for their liberty. In truth, it is evident he neither could have continued in Brazil without acceding to the popular desire, nor have then left it without insuring the destruction of monarchy in that country. He acquiesced, therefore, in the prayer of these petitions; the independence of Brazil was proclaimed, and the Portuguese monarchy thus finally dismembered.

In the summer of 1823, the advance of the French army into Spain excited a revolt of the Portuguese royalists; and now the infant Don Miguel, the king's second son, attracted notice, by appearing at the head of a battallion who declared against the constitution; and the inconstant soldiery, equally ignorant of the objects of their revolts against the king or the cortes, were easily induced to overthrow their own slight work. After a short interval, the possessors of authority relapsed into the ancient and fatal error of their kind:—that of placing their security in maintaining unlimited power. A resistance to the constitution, which grew up in the interior of the court, was fostered by foreign influence; and, after a struggle of some months, prevented the promulgation of a charter well considered and digested.

In April, 1824, part of the garrison of Lisbon surrounded the king's palace, and hindered the access of his servants to him; some of his ministers were imprisoned, and the diplomatic body, including the papal nuncio, the French ambassadors, and the Russian as well as the English minister, were the only means at last of restoring him to some degree of liberty; which was, however, so imperfect, that, by the advice of the French ambassador, the king, accompanied by his two daughters (May 9), took refuge on board of an English ship of war in the Tagus, where, with the assistance of the whole diplomatic corps, he was at length able to re-establish his authority. In all the transactions which rendered this step necessary, Don Miguel had acted a most conspicuous part. He, however, declared that his object was to frustrate a conspiracy, which was on the point of breaking out, against the life of the king and the queen; and so well inclined was the king to pardon his son, that he accepted his explanation, and forgave these youthful faults as involuntary errors. The king, at length, issued a proclamation (June 4), for restoring the ancient constitution of the Portuguese monarchy, with assurances that an assembly of the cortes, or three estates of the realm, should be speedily held with all their legal rights, and especially with the privilege of laying before the king, for his consideration, the heads of such measures as they might deem necessary for the public good, for the administration of justice, and for the redress of grievances, whether public or private. To that assembly was referred the consideration of the periodical meetings of succeeding cortes, and the means of progressively ameliorating the administration of the state. On the 14th of May the king returned ashore; and on the 4th of the following month he proclaimed an act of amnesty for the adherents of the cortes of 1820, from which only a few exceptions were made; on the same day appeared the decree of June 4, reviving the old constitution of the estates, and summoning the cortes of Lamego. At the same time,

the junta for the preparation of a constitution was superseded by another, which was directed to make preparations for the election of the deputies of the old cortes. But Spain opposed the convocation of the old cortes, and the influence of the queen was thus revived. New conspiracies were formed against the king, and the ministry was divided in its views, principally in regard to the policy to be pursued towards Brazil.

In January, 1825, a new ministry was formed; and a negotiation was opened in London, under the mediation of Austria and England, to adjust the differences between Portugal and Brazil. The Brazilians had tasted independence, and it was soon evident that no amicable issue of such negotiation was possible which did not involve acquiescence in the separation of the two countries. Accordingly, a treaty was concluded, and finally ratified at Lisbon (November 5), recognizing the independence and separation of Brazil, acknowledging the sovereignty of that country to be vested in Don Pedro; allowing the king of Portugal also to assume the imperial title; and binding the emperor of Brazil to reject the offer of any Portuguese colony to be incorporated with his dominions.

The death of John VI. took place March 10, 1826, after having named the infanta Isabella regent, who governed in the name of the emperor of Brazil, as king of Portugal. In the following month, Don Pedro granted a constitution, establishing two chambers, and in other respects resembling the French charter. May 2, he abdicated the Portuguese throne, in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria (he remaining king during her minority), on condition of her marrying her uncle Miguel. But a party was formed, which aimed at the overthrow of this constitution, and proclaimed the prince absolute king of Portugal. The marquis of Chaves and the marquis of Abrantes appeared at the head of the insurgents; and Spain, which alone had not acknowledged the new order of things, assembled an army on the Portuguese frontiers. In this emergency Portugal appealed to England, and fifteen thousand British troops were landed in Lisbon. Thus assisted, the insurrection was completely put down; Spain was forced to yield, and the cortes, which had been convened in October, 1826, closed its session in March, 1827. In July, Don Pedro named his brother Miguel lieutenant and regent of the kingdom, with all the rights established by the charter, according to which the government was to be administered. The prince accordingly left Vienna, and arrived at Lisbon in February, 1828. The cortes was then in session, and, on the 26th, Miguel took the oath to observe the charter, in the presence of the two chambers. But the apostolicals or absolutists, to whom the disposition of the regent was well known, already began to speak openly of his rights to the throne, and to hail him as absolute king. His ministers were all appointed from that party, except the count Villa Real; and the populace were permitted to add to their cry, "Long live the absolute king," that of "Down with the constitution." It was now determined that Miguel should go to Villa Viçosa, a town near the Spanish frontier, where he could be supported by the troops of the marquis of Chaves, and be proclaimed absolute king; but this project was frustrated by the decision of Mr. Lamb, the British minister, who counteracted the order for the departure of the British troops, and prevented the payment of the loan made to Don Miguel under the guarantee of the British government. The cortes, being opposed to the designs of the prince, was dissolved March 14, and the recall of the British troops in April removed another obstacle from his path. He accordingly, on the 3d of May, issued a decree in his own name, convoking the ancient cortes of Lamego, which had not met since 1697. The military in general was not favourable to the projects of the prince, and the garrison of Oporto proclaimed Don Pedro and the charter, May 18. Other garrisons joined them, and the constitutional army, six thousand strong, advanced towards Lisbon. But they were unable to cope with the abso-

lutists, and after sustaining a severe defeat towards the end of June, the troops either forced their way to the Spanish frontiers, or embarked for England. Thus terminated the first efforts of the constitutionalists in Portugal, and, with the extinction of that party, the influence of England with the Portuguese government ceased. Don Miguel now turned his attention to the consolidation of his power; severity and cruelty were his expedients; the prisons were crowded with the suspected, and foreign countries were filled with fugitives. Many noblemen who were known to be attached to the cause of the young queen, fortunately made their escape, and some of them came to England, where they were supported by money sent from Brazil by the emperor, for that purpose, to his ambassador in London. The cortes met June 23, and declared Don Miguel lawful king of Portugal and Algarve; chiefly on the grounds that Don Pedro had forfeited his right by becoming a Brazilian citizen, and was not a resident in the country, and that therefore he could neither succeed to the throne himself, nor name the person who should reign in his stead. On the 4th of July, 1828, Don Miguel confirmed the judgment of the cortes, and assumed the royal title. He immediately established a special commission to punish all who had taken a part in the Oporto insurrection, the members of the commission to be paid from the confiscations they should make; and in the colonies the same course of condemnation was pursued that had been practised at home.

Portugal now became the prey of political and religious bigots. In March, 1830, the regency appointed by Don Pedro, as guardian of his daughter, was installed in Terceira, consisting of Palmella, Villa Flor, and Guerreiro. The other islands were afterwards reduced by the forces of the regency; and subsequently to the return of Don Pedro to Europe, it was well known that he was making preparations for displacing Miguel from his usurped seat. Meanwhile insurrections repeatedly broke out at home, but were suppressed by the vigour of the government and the want of concert in the insurgents. In 1830, it was estimated that the number of prisoners confined for political causes were above forty thousand, and that the number of persons concealed in different parts of the country was about five thousand. In consequence of some acts of violence, and a refusal of redress on the part of the government, a British fleet was sent to the Tagus (May 4, 1831); but on its appearance the required concessions were made. In July, Miguel was obliged to suffer a second humiliation of this nature; a French fleet having forced the passage of the Tagus, and taken possession of the Portuguese fleet, in consequence of the demands of the French government, for satisfaction for injuries to French subjects committed by the Portuguese authorities, not having been complied with. In August, an insurrection of the troops broke out against Miguel. At that time Don Pedro had arrived in Europe, having embarked on board an English ship of war in the spring of 1831, and reached France in June. From thence he proceeded to Oporto, and immediately commenced operations for displacing Don Miguel from the throne, and establishing Donna Maria as queen, under a regency. Previous to this, large bodies of volunteers had embarked from Britain and Ireland in the cause of Don Pedro, the greater number of whom were garrisoned in Oporto. Don Miguel, meanwhile, was not inactive, but advanced with his adherents towards that city, which he attacked several times without success; on one occasion (September 21, 1832), hs loss was fifteen hundred men, while that of Don Pedro was not more than a third of the number. In July of the same year, a naval battle took place between the fleet of Don Pedro, under the command of Admiral Napier, and that of Don Miguel, in which the latter was defeated, with the loss of two ships of 74 guns, a frigate of 56, a store-ship of 48, and two smaller vessels. This event, with other successes of the Pedroite party, led to Miguel's abandonment of the

throne, consenting at the same time to leave the kingdom, on condition of receiving an income for life suited to his rank. Donna Maria da Gloria was proclaimed queen of Portugal, and in 1835 was married to the duke of Leuchtenberg, son of Eugene Beauharnois. This prince died in March of the same year, after having been married about a month.

Don Pedro died a few months after his daughter had assumed the regal power; but his short reign was distinguished by two remarkable acts, one of which is likely to have a beneficial effect on the commerce of the country, the other not less likely to have an influence over the religion and social habits of the people. By the former, the abolition of the Oporto wine company, which was a most injurious monopoly, was effected, thereby giving the grower a fair recompense for encouraging the cultivation of the grape, and thus producing wine of a better quality; while, owing to the competition of merchants who export the wine, it could be bought at a lower price. The English being great buyers of wine, the decree of Don Pedro was advantageous to them, as well as to the Portuguese. We must not, however, forget to state, that the young queen was prevailed upon, in 1838, to grant a new charter of monopoly to the Oporto wine company for twenty years, thereby frustrating the benefits which were to be expected from its previous abolition. The other memorable act of the regent was the suppression of all the monasteries and convents in the kingdom, and the seizure of all lands belonging to them; a measure which was considered as retaliatory for the assistance given to Don Miguel by the monks, &c., during the contest between the rival brothers. This was, notwithstanding, an act of unmerited severity; for although small pensions—none exceeding fifty pounds a year—were granted to those who had not openly avowed themselves in favour of Don Miguel, it was so easy to accuse them of having done so, that very few actually received the pittance. The lands thus confiscated were ordered to be sold for the benefit of the state; and after the death of Don Pedro, the cortes divided them into very small lots, allowing labouring people to become the purchasers on easy terms. The sale took place in 1835, and among the buyers were many foreigners, who have settled in Portugal on these small estates, and who, as well as the Portuguese peasantry thus converted into landed proprietors, will be the means of promoting industry, and thereby increasing the comforts of a large class of the inhabitants.

To pursue this sketch of the history of Portugal farther is needless; for though several attempts have been made to overturn the existing government, and although the political horizon wears an unsettled aspect, the events which have subsequently occurred present few features worthy of comment. The queen's second marriage with a prince of the family of Saxe-Coburg must not, however, be forgotten; neither should we omit that Portugal, so early and so constantly foremost among the slave-dealing nations of Europe, has followed the example of Great Britain, and decreed its abolition.

The government of Portugal is an hereditary monarchy, with an upper and a lower representative chamber, both of which are elective, the franchise being vested in the holders of a certain small amount of fixed property. The cortes meet and dissolve at specified periods, without the intervention of the sovereign, and the latter has no veto on a law passed twice by both houses. Each province has a governor, to whom the details of its government are entrusted, but great abuses exist in almost every department, both in the judicial and administrative branches, the inadequacy of the salaries leading to the acceptance of bribes. And with regard to the prevalence of crime, it may be truly said, that so common is assassination, and so numerous are thefts, that the law and the police are impotent alike to secure either property or life.

The Portuguese language differs but little from the Spanish; and, in

Southey's "Peninsular War," the author says, "add hypocrisy to a Spaniard's vices, and you have the Portuguese character." But we are inclined to think him slanderous. The fifteenth century was the era of the heroic age in Portugal, at which time its literature vied with the Spanish; at present, the Italian opera is the chief attraction in Lisbon. Though Portugal has lost Brazil, she still retains the Azores, Madeira, Cape de Verd, and Guinea islands; the settlements of Angola and Mozambique, in Africa; and those of Goa, Dilli, Macao, &c., in Asia.

THE HISTORY OF GERMANY.

[AUSTRIAN EMPIRE, GERMAN STATES, &c.]

From all that can be collected of the early history of Germany, it appears to have been divided into many petty nations and principalities, some governed by kings whose power was limited, others by such as were absolute; some of their princes were elective, and others hereditary; and some aristocratical and democratical governments were also found among them. Many of these states and kingdoms frequently united under one head or general, both in their offensive and defensive wars. This was the state of the Germans before they were conquered by the Romans. At that time the children went naked, and the men hung the skin of some wild beast upon their shoulders, fastening it with a thong; and persons of the best quality wore only a little woolen mantle, or a coat without sleeves. Their usual bed was the ground, a little straw, with the skins of wolves or bears. Their food was bread, meat, butter, and fruit, as at present, and their drink, water, milk, and beer; for in those early ages they were strangers to the use of wine. They were accustomed to convivial entertainments, sitting in a semi-circle, with the master of the family in the middle, and the rest on the right and left, according to their quality; but to these feasts no women were admitted, nor a son under twenty years of age. They expressed an extraordinary regard for morality, and were very strict in divine worship, choosing their priests out of the nobility, who were not entirely ignorant of moral philosophy and physics, and were usually called to councils of state. Women, we are told, were likewise admitted to the priestly office, and both the one and the other were treated with the most profound respect by the laity. The doctrine of transmigration prevailed in Germany; they believed that departed souls, when they had left these bodies, animated other creatures; and, according as they behaved in this life, were happy or miserable. Cluverius observes, that they worshiped the sun with such devotion, that they seemed to acknowledge that planet as the supreme God, and to it dedicated the first day of the week. They also worshiped *Woden*, or *Godan*, after whom the fourth day of the week was called Wednesday. It is said that this word *Godan*, becoming afterwards contracted into God, the Germans and English gave that name to the Deity. They also worshiped the god *Faranes*, the same with the Danish *Thor*, the Thunderer, from whom our Thursday has its name. The goddess *Freia*, or *Venus*, gave her name to Friday; and *Tuisco*, the same with *Mars*, gave name to Tuesday.

Like the ancient Britons, they performed their sacrifices in groves, the oak being usually chosen for an altar; and, instead of a temple, they erected an arbour made of the boughs of the oak and beech. The priests, as well as the sacrifice, were always crowned with wreaths of oak, or of some other sacred tree. They sacrificed not only beasts, but men; and these human sacrifices were taken from among their slaves or malefactors. Their belief that their souls should animate other bodies after death, it is said, made them fearless of danger, and upon extraordinary occasions they made no scruple of sacrificing their own lives. They burnt their dead bodies, and, having gathered up the bones and ashes of the funeral pile, buried them together; at the funerals of the great, warlike exercises were exhibited with all the rude pageantry of barbaric splendour, and songs were sung in memory of the heroic actions of the deceased.

These were the manners of the Germans, before they were subdued by the Romans, who met with such resistance, that they were contented with making the Rhine and the Danube the boundaries of their conquests; they accordingly built fortresses, and stationed garrisons on the banks of both those rivers, to prevent the incursions of what they termed the barbarous nations; but within about a hundred years after Constantine the Great, the Franks, Burgundians, Alemanni, and other German nations, broke through those boundaries, passed the Rhine, and dispossessed the Romans of all Gaul, Rhætia, and Noricum, which they shared among themseves; but the Franks prevailing over the rest, at length established their empire over all modern Germany, France, and Italy, under the conduct of Charlemagne, or Charles the Great. This celebrated man was crowned at Rome by Pope Leo III. in the church of St. Peter, on Christmas-day, 800, amid the acclamations of the clergy and the people. Nicephorus, at that time emperor of the East, attended at the coronation; and these princes agreed that the state of Venice should serve as the limit to each empire. Charlemagne now exercised all the authority of the Cæsars; the whole country from Benevento to Bayonne, and from Bayonne to Bavaria, acknowledging his power.

The Germans had previously been converted to Christianity by one Winfred, an Englishman, who also collected them in towns, and thus introduced the elements of civilization among them. The Saxons were made Christians by Charlemagne, after a long and bloody warfare.

After the death of Charlemagne, and of Louis le Debonnaire, his son and successor, the empire was divided between the four sons of Louis; Lothaire was emperor; Pepin, king of Aquitaine; Louis, king of Germany; and Charles the Bald, king of France. This partition was a continual source of discontent among the parties. The French enjoyed the empire under eight emperors, until the year 912, when Louis III., the last prince of the race of Charlemagne, dying without male issue, Conrad, count of Franconia, son-in-law to Louis, was elected emperor, but was not acknowledged in Italy nor in France. The reign of Conrad produced no change whatever in Germany; but it was about this period that the German bishops fixed themselves in the possession of their fiefs; and many cities began to enjoy the right of natural liberty; following the example of the cities of Italy, some bought these rights of their lords, and others procured them with arms in their hands. Questions affecting the general interests of the Germanic body were determined in a diet, consisting of the emperor, the electors, and the representatives of the princes, and of the free cities. There were also minor diets in the different cities or divisions of the empire. It may, however, be proper to mention in this place, that the constitution of the empire has undergone a total change. There is no emperor of Germany; the title is sunk in that of emperor of Austria, which that sovereign holds by inheritance, not election. The ecclesiastical electorates have been taken possession of by secular princes.

Bohemia is united to Austria; the palatinate has disappeared; Saxony is given to the kingdom of Prussia, formerly the electorate of Brandenburg; and the electorates of Hanover and Bavaria are also converted into kingdoms. Most of these changes are the work of the late wars.

Conrad was succeeded by Henry, duke of Savoy, whom on his deathbed he recommended to the states. And in Henry II. the male race of the Saxon kings and emperors ended, in 1024. The states then elected Conrad II., who, by means of his son, afterwards Henry III., annexed the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire, rendered Poland subject to his dominion, and, in a treaty with Denmark, appointed the river Eider as the boundary of the German empire. Henry III. is regarded as the most powerful and absolute of the German emperors. He deposed three popes who had set up against each other, and supported a fourth against them; from which time the vacancy of the papal chair was always intimated to the emperor, and it became an established form for him to send a deputation to Rome, requesting that a new pope might be elected. Henry IV., his son, was, however, put under the ban by the pope, Gregory VII., and his subjects and son excited to rebel against him; on which he was deposed by the states. Henry V. succeeded his father, but was obliged to renounce all pretensions to the investiture of bishoprics, which had been claimed by his ancestors; and in him became extinct the male line of the Frank emperors. Upon this the pope caused Lotharius, duke of Saxony, to be elected; but he was not acknowledged by all Germany for their sovereign till after a ten years' war. Frederic I., who became emperor in 1152, effectually exercised his sovereignty over the see of Rome, by virtue of his coronation at Arles, reserving also his dominion over that kingdom, and obliging Poland to pay him tribute and take an oath of allegiance. To him succeeded Henry VI., Philip III., and Otho; the latter of whom, being deposed by the pope, was succeeded by Frederic II., whom historians extol for his learning, wisdom and resolution; he was five times excommunicated by three popes, but prevailed so far against Pope Gregory IX. as to depose him from the papal chair. These continual contests between him and the popes gave rise to the two famous factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines; the former adhering to the papal see, and the latter to the emperors.

About the middle of the thirteenth century the empire was rent asunder by factions, each of which supported a particular candidate for the imperial dignity; these were William, earl of Holland, Henry of Thuringia, Richard, earl of Cornwall, brother to Henry III. of England; and Alphonso, king of Castile. At this time the great officers of the household laid claim to a right of electing the emperor, to the exclusion of the princes and great towns, or without consulting any other members of the empire; the distracted state of the empire served to confirm to them this claim; and Gregory X., who then filled the pontifical chair at Rome, either considering such claim as valid, or desirous of rendering it so, directed a bull to those great officers, the purport of which was to exhort them to choose an emperor, and by that means to end the troubles in Germany. From that time they have been considered as the sole electors; and their right to this privilege was established beyond all controversy in the reign of Charles IV., by the glorious constitution known by the title of the *golden bull*, published in the year 1357, which decreed that the territories by virtue of which the great offices were held, should descend to the heirs-male forever, in perpetual entail, entire and indivisible.

Germany began to recover from its distracted state in the year 1273, when Count Rodolph of Hapsburgh, the founder of the house of Austria, was advanced to the imperial dignity. Charles IV. of the Austrian family lived to see his son Wenzel, or Wenceslaus, elected king of the

Romans. This prince, who was the fourth son of Charles, at his father's desire succeeded to the empire; but, being dissolute and cruel, was deposed, after he had reigned twenty-two years. Charles was succeeded by three other princes, whose reigns were short; at length, in 1411, Sigismund was unanimously chosen emperor, and in 1414 he proclaimed a general council to be held at Constance, in which three popes were deposed and a new one was set up. At this council the reformers, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, were condemned and burnt, although the emperor had granted them a passport, and was engaged in honour and conscience for their safe return to their country; which so exasperated the Hussites of Bohemia, that they raised a formidable army, and under the conduct of Zisca, their general, defeated his forces in fourteen battles. Frederic, duke of Austria, son-in-law to the emperor Sigismund, was chosen emperor upon the death of his father, and reigned fifty-three years. His son Maximilian was chosen king of the Romans during the life of his father, and afterwards obtained from the pope the imperial crown. During his reign the empire was divided into ten circles.

Charles V., surnamed the Great, son of Philip, king of Spain, and grandson to Maximilian, was elected emperor in 1519. He caused Luther's doctrine to be condemned, and in his reign the disciples of that great reformer obtained the name of *Protestants*, from their *protesting* against a decree of the imperial diet in favour of the Catholics. He is said to have been victorious in seventy battles; he had the pope and French king prisoners at the same time, and carried his arms into Africa, where he conquered the kingdom of Tunis, but was disgraced in the war with the piratical states. He compelled the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, made war on the protestant princes, and took the elector of Saxony and the prince of Hesse prisoners; but, after a reign of thirty-eight years, he resigned the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and the kingdom of Spain to his son, Philip II., himself retiring to the convent of St. Juste, in Spain. The abdication of this prince left the power of the princes of Germany more firm. The house of Austria was divided into two branches, one of which reigned in Spain, and which, by the conquests in the New World, had become much superior, in power and riches, to the Austrian branch. Ferdinand I., successor to Charles V., had great possessions in Germany; Upper Hungary, which he also possessed, could afford him little more than the support of the troops necessary to make head against the Turks; Bohemia seemed to bear the yoke with regret; and Livonia, which had hitherto belonged to the empire, was now detached and joined to Poland.

Ferdinand I. distinguished himself by establishing the *aulic* council of the empire; he was a peaceful prince, and used to assign a part of each day to hear the complaints of his people. Maximilian II., and his son, Rodolph II., were each elected king of the Romans, but the latter could not be prevailed upon to allow a successor to be chosen in his lifetime. Under Maximilian II., as under Ferdinand I., Lombardy was not, in effect, in the power of Germany; it was in the hands of Philip, appertaining rather to an ally than a vassal. During this time the legislative authority resided always in the emperor, notwithstanding the weakness of the imperial power; and this authority was in its greatest vigour, when the chief of the empire had not diminished his power by increasing that of the princes. Rodolph II. found these obstacles to his authority, and the empire became more weak in his hands. The philosophy, or rather the effeminacy, of this prince, who possessed particular virtues, but not those of a sovereign, occasioned many fermentations. Lutheranism had already spread itself in Germany for the space of a century; princes, kings, cities and nations, had embraced this doctrine. In vain Charles V. and his successors had endeavoured to stop its progress; it

manifested itself more and more every day, till at length it broke all bounds, and menaced Germany with a general war. Henry IV. having nullified the measures of the party formed against the house of Austria, the protestants and catholics appeared reciprocally to fear each other: and hostilities ceased after the taking of Juliers. Germany, however, continued to be divided into two parties. The first, which was named the *angelic union*, had for its chief the elector palatine, united to whom were all the protestant princes, and the greater part of the imperial cities. The second was called the *catholic league*, at the head of which was the duke of Bavaria. The pope and king of Spain joined themselves to this party; and it was further strengthened by the elector of Saxony, and the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt; the first because he was jealous of the elector palatine, and the latter because he had his particular reasons for keeping fair with the emperor. Rodolph died in 1612. The electors, after an interregnum of some months, bestowed the empire on the archduke Matthias, brother to the late emperor. This prince had already mounted the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, as a friend to the protestant cause. But he had no sooner ascended the imperial throne, than he laid aside the mask and renounced the reformed religion. It was not long before he received the proper reward of his dissimulation. An irruption being made into Hungary by the Turks, he applied to the protestants for succour, who refused him assistance.

In 1619 Matthias died, leaving no issue. The protestant party used its utmost endeavors to prevent the empire from falling into the hands of a catholic prince, especially one of the house of Austria; notwithstanding which, Ferdinand II., cousin to the late emperor, was elected, and for a time he was the most happy as well as the most powerful monarch in Europe; not so much from his personal efforts or abilities, as from the great success of his generals, Walstein and Tilly. The power of Austria menaced equally the catholics and the protestants, and the alarm spread itself even to Rome. The pope thought it advisable to unite with France, in order to check the growing power of Austria. French gold, and the entreaties of the protestants, brought into this confederacy Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, the only monarch of his day who had the smallest pretension to the name of a hero. The arrival of Gustavus in Germany changed the face of affairs in Europe. In 1631 he gained the battle of Leipsic, defeating General Tilly. Many of the new manœuvres introduced at that time by the Swedish monarch into the art of war, are even now practised by most of the European powers, and are esteemed by military men chef-d'œuvres in military art. Ferdinand, in 1632, had nearly lost Hungary, Bohemia, and the empire; but his good fortune saved him; his enemy, Gustavus Adolphus, was killed in the battle of Lutzen, in the midst of victory. The house of Austria, which had sunk under the arms of Adolphus, now felt new spirits, and succeeded in detaching the most powerful princes of the empire from the alliance of Sweden. These victorious troops, abandoned by their allies and deprived of their king, were beaten at Nordlingen; and although more fortunate afterwards, they were less feared than when under Gustavus.

Ferdinand II. died at this conjuncture; he left all his dominions to his son Ferdinand III. In the reign of this prince the celebrated treaty of Westphalia was solemnly signed at Munster, October 24th, 1648. It was the basis of all subsequent treaties, and is esteemed as the fundamental law of the empire. It was by this treaty that the quarrels of the emperors, and the princes of the empire, which had subsisted seven hundred years, and the disputes about religion (although of less duration, not less dangerous), were terminated. Germany appeared to recover insensibly its losses; the fields were cultivated, and the cities rebuilt. Leopold, the son of Ferdinand, succeeded. His first war was very unfortunate, and he

received the law by the peace of Nimeguen. The interior of Germany was not materially injured; but the frontiers, on the side of the Rhine, suffered considerably. Fortune was less unequal in the second war, produced by the league of Augsburg; Germany, England, Spain, Savoy, and Sweden, against France. This war ended with the peace of Ryswick, which deprived Louis XIV. of Strasburg.

The third war was the most fortunate for Leopold, and for Germany; when Louis XIV. had considerably increased his power; when he governed Spain under the name of his grandson; when his armies not only possessed the Netherlands, and Bavaria, but were in the heart of Italy and Germany. The battle of Hochstadt, in 1704, changed the scene, and every place he had acquired was lost. Leopold died the following year, with the reputation of being the most powerful emperor since Charles the Fifth. The reign of Joseph I., his son, was yet more successful than that of Leopold. The gold of England and Holland, the victories of Prince Eugene and the duke of Marlborough, and his good fortune, rendered him almost absolute. He put to the ban of the empire the electors of Bavaria and Cologne, partizans of France, and took possession of their dominions. Joseph died in 1711, and was succeeded by his brother, Charles VI. Although powerful as he was, by the possession of all Hungary, of the Milanese, of Mantua, of Naples, and of Sicily, and the nine provinces of the Low Countries, and the flourishing state of his hereditary German dominions, he was obliged to sign, on receiving the imperial crown, an obligation to conserve and augment the rights of the Germanic body. The empire was tranquil and flourishing under the last emperor of the house of Austria. The war of 1716, against the Turks, was principally on the frontiers of the Ottoman territory, and terminated gloriously. Germany had changed its face during the times of Leopold and Joseph; but, in the reign of Charles VI. it may be said to have arrived almost at perfection. Previous to this epoch, the arts were uncultivated; scarcely a house was well built, and manufactures of fine articles unknown; the thirty years' war had ruined all.

The affairs of Charles were uniformly successful until 1734. The celebrated victories of Prince Eugene over the Turks at Temeswar, and at Belgrade, secured the frontiers of Hungary from molestation; and Italy became safe in consequence of Don Carlos, son of Philip V., having consented to become his vassal. But these prosperities had their termination. Charles, by his credit in Europe, and in conjunction with Russia, endeavoured to procure the crown of Poland for Augustus III., elector of Saxony. The French, who supported Stanislaus, had the advantage, and Stanislaus was elected king. Don Carlos being declared king of Naples, after the battle of Bitonto, took possession also in 1735. Charles, to obtain peace, renounced the two kingdoms, and dismembered the Milanese in favour of the king of Sardinia. New misfortunes afflicted him in his latter years. Having declared war against the Turks in 1737, his armies were defeated, and a disadvantageous peace was the consequence. Belgrade, Temeswar, Orsova, and all the country between the Danube and the Saave, were ceded to the Turks. He died broken-hearted, in 1740. The death of Charles plunged Europe in one general and ruinous war. By the "pragmatic sanction," which he had signed, and which was guaranteed by France, the arch-duchess Maria Theresa, his eldest daughter, had been named as heiress to all his possessions. This princess married, in 1736, Francis Stephen, last duke of Lorraine. She solicited the imperial throne for her husband, and sued for the inheritance of her father. They were both disputed by the elector of Bavaria, who, supported by the arms of France, was elected emperor, in 1742.

Charles VII. died in 1745, and was succeeded by Francis I., the husband of Maria Theresa. He died in 1765, and was succeeded by his eldest son,

Joseph II., who had been elected king of the Romans the preceding year. When this prince attained to the imperial dignity, he was considered as distinguished by a steady and active attention to every department of government; and he actually introduced a variety of bold and salutary reforms in the state. A noble liberality of mind, and enlarged views of politics, were imputed to him when he rendered the condition of the lower orders of men in his hereditary dominions less wretched and servile, by alleviating that cruel vassalage in which they were held by the feudal lords of the soil; while a free and unreserved toleration was granted to all sects and denominations of Christians; but these hopes were frustrated by a more full developement of his character, in which, activity without efficiency, enacting laws and abrogating them, forming great designs and terminating them in mean concessions, appeared conspicuous. On the death of the elector of Bavaria, in 1777, the emperor laid claim to a considerable part of that electorate, founded on a vague right which had been set up, but not contended for, so long ago as the year 1425, by the emperor Sigismund. The king of Prussia, as elector of Brandenburgh, opposed these pretensions, on the ground of protecting the empire in its rights, privileges, and territorial possessions, against all encroachments upon, or diminutions of them; but the emperor not being induced by negotiation to relinquish his designs, in 1778 the two most powerful monarchs in Europe led their formidable armies in person, to decide the dispute by arms; nearly half a million of men appearing in the field, to fight for a territory which would have been dearly purchased at the sum expended on one year's support of those vast armies—so little is the ambition of princes regulated by the intrinsic worth of the object at which they aim! The kingdom of Bohemia was the scene of action, and the greatest generals of the age commanded; as, Marshal Count Laudohn, on the side of Austria; Prince Henry of Prussia, and the hereditary prince (afterwards duke) of Brunswick, on the side of Prussia. The horrors and the eclât of war were then expected to be revived, in all their tremendous pomp, but the campaign was closed without any general action, or any brilliant event whatever; and during the following winter the courts of Petersburgh and Versailles interposing their good offices to make up the breach, terms of peace were soon adjusted at Teschen, in Austrian Silesia. The territory acquired to the house of Austria by virtue of this treaty extends about seventy English miles, and in breadth is about half that space. The court of Vienna, being thus put into possession of this territory, renounced, in the fullest and most explicit terms, all other claims whatever on the electorate, by which every latent spark that might kindle future contentions and wars was supposed to be extinguished. In the year 1781, the court of Vienna endeavoured to procure for the archduke Maximilian, brother to the emperor, the election to a participation of the secular bishoprics of Cologne and Munster, together with the reversion of the former: this measure was strenuously opposed by the king of Prussia, who remonstrated against it to the reigning elector, and to the chapters, in whom the right of election is lodged; but notwithstanding the power of the prince who thus interposed, the house of Austria carried its point. After this the views of the emperor were directed to the restoration of the commerce formerly carried on by the ancient city of Antwerp; and also to invite foreign ships to the port of Ostend, by which he hoped to render the Austrian Netherlands flourishing and opulent; nor was he less attentive to abridge the power of the clergy and the authority of the church of Rome, in every part of his hereditary dominions.

Joseph II. died February 20, 1790, in the 49th year of his age, and was succeeded by his brother, Leopold II., then grand duke of Tuscany, who became emperor of Germany, and king of Hungary and Bohemia. This prince severely felt the thorns which encompassed a diadem: although a

lover of peace, he was compelled to wage war with the French republic; while he saw his sister, the queen of France, degraded from her rank, kept a close prisoner, and in continual danger of an untimely end; but death closed his eyes upon these conflictive scenes in March, 1791, five months after his advancement, in the forty-fourth year of his age. Francis had no sooner been declared emperor, than he joined in the hostilities carrying on against France, on account of his hereditary states, as well as the empire. He soon lost the Netherlands; and the empire all its territory west of the Rhine; the Austrian possessions in Italy followed in 1797. The progress of the French arms was arrested only by the treaty of Campo Formio. A congress was afterwards held at Rastadt, which continued sitting for many months, and at length broke up without procuring peace. During the year 1799 the Austrians, joined by the Russians under Suwarrow, penetrated into Italy, and deprived the French of the greater part of their conquests acquired by the military skill of Bonaparte.

In 1800, Bonaparte having returned from Egypt, raised an army, and crossed the Alps, with a view to recover Italy, lost in his absence. Fortune favoured his arms, and all the possessions of Francis fell into his hands by the famous battle of Marengo. Piedmont also submitted to the conqueror, and was, with Parma, Placentia, and some imperial fiefs, incorporated with France. The peace of Luneville, in 1801, made the Rhine the boundary between France and Germany; the latter thus lost more than 26,000 square miles of territory, and nearly 4,000,000 inhabitants. The Austrian monarch founded the hereditary empire of Austria in 1804; and the first consul of France was declared emperor of the French, under the title of Napoleon I. Austria and Russia soon after united against Napoleon; and the peace of Presburg, which took place on the 26th of December, 1805, terminated the war, in which three states of the German empire, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, and Baden, had taken part as allies of France. In the following year, sixteen German princes renounced their connexion with the German empire, and entered into a union under the name of the confederation of the Rhine, which acknowledged the emperor of France as its protector. This decisive step was followed by a second. The German empire was dissolved; the emperor Francis resigned the German crown, renounced the title of emperor of Germany, and declared the hereditary dominions separated from the German empire. The first year of the existence of this "confederation" had not elapsed, when its armies, united with those of France, were marched to the Saale, the Elbe, and the Oder, against the Prussians, and afterwards to the Vistula, against the Russians. After the peace of Tilsit the confederation was strengthened by the accession of eleven princely houses of northern Germany. The kingdom of Westphalia was established, and Jerome, the brother of Napoleon, put upon the throne. Four kings, five grand-dukes, and twenty-five dukes and other princes, were united in the new confederation.

The peace of Vienna increased its extent and power. The north-western parts, however, and the Hanseatic cities, Bremen, Hamburg, and Lubeck, were united with France in 1810. When Napoleon, in 1812, undertook his fatal expedition to Russia, the contingents of the Rhenish confederation joined his army; and not less than 100,000 Germans found their graves in the snows of Russia. The Russians pursued their advantages to the frontiers of Germany. Prussia, wearied with her long sufferings, joined them with enthusiasm, and, at the same time, some of the states of the north of Germany united with them. Lubeck and Hamburg rose against the French, and all Germany was animated with the cheering hope of liberation. Austria next joined the grand alliance; and the war, owing to the enthusiasm of the people, soon assumed a most favourable appearance for the allies. On the 8th of October, 1813, Bavaria joined the

allied arms: and, ten days afterwards, the battle of Leipsic destroyed the French dominion in Germany, and dissolved the confederation of the Rhine. The king of Wirtemberg, and the other princes of the south, soon after followed the example of Bavaria; and after the battle of Hanau, Oct. 30, the French arms had retreated over the Rhine. Everywhere in Germany the French power was now annihilated; neither the kingdom of Westphalia nor the grand-duchy of Berg any longer existed. Throughout Germany immense preparations were made for the preservation of the recovered independence. The victorious armies passed the Rhine on the first days of the following year, and all the territory which the French had conquered from Germany since 1793, was regained and secured by the events of the campaign in France and peace of Paris. It was stipulated, by the articles of the peace, that the German states should be independent, but connected together by a federative system. This provision of the treaty was carried into effect by the congress of Vienna, Nov. 1, 1814, and by the statutes of the Germanic confederation in 1815.

In the new system of Europe, established at the congress in 1815, and by the treaty concluded with Bavaria, at Munich, in April, 1816, the Austrian monarchy not only gained more than 4238 square miles of territory, but was also essentially improved in compactness; and its commercial importance was increased by the accession of Dalmatia and Venice. The influence of this power among the states of Europe, in consequence of the congress of Vienna, as the first member of the great quadruple alliance (changed, by the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, to a quintuple alliance,) and as the head of the German confederation, has since been gradually increasing. Of the foreign affairs of the government, which have been conducted by the prince Von Metternich, the most important is the connexion of Austria with the German confederation. The termination of the war with Russia, or, as it is called in Germany, "the war of liberation," restored Germany to its geographical and political position in Europe, but not as an empire acknowledging one supreme head. A confederation of thirty-five independent sovereigns and four free cities has replaced the elective monarchy, that fell under its own decrepitude. In the choice of the smaller princes, who were to become rulers, as well as of those who were obliged to descend to the rank of subjects, more attention was paid to family and political connection than to the old territorial divisions under the empire. The clerical fiefs, and the greater part of the free imperial cities, were incorporated into the estates of the more powerful princes, upon the dissolution of the empire, and were not re-established. Only four cities remained in the enjoyment of their political rights. The following territories, with the population of each, according to the statistics of 1838, are comprised in the present German confederation:

States.	*Population.*	*States.*	*Population.*
1. Austrian empire	11,713,950	15. Grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar	245,590
2. Kingdom of Prussia	10,903,810	16. Duchy of Saxe-Coburg Gotha	140,040
3. Bavaria	4,338,490	17. Saxe-Meiningen	140,590
4. Saxony	1,605,590	18. Saxe-Altenburg	121,590
5. Hanover	1,737,500	19. Grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz	87,820
6. Wirtemberg	1,646,780	20. Oldenburg and Kniphausen	267,660
7. Grand duchy of Baden	1,237,260	21. Duchy of Anhalt Dessau	61,480
8. Electorate of Hesse	721,550	22. Bernburg	46,920
9. Hesse Darmstadt	793,130	23. Duchy of Kothen	40,200
10. Duchy of Holstein	476,950	24. Principality of Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen	55,810
11. Grand duchy of Luxemburg	184,760	25. Rudolstadt	86,130
Leinburg	147,530	26. Hohenzoltern Hechingen	20,200
12. Duchy of Brunswick	269,000		
13. Grand duchy of Mecklenburgh Sowerin	478,800		
14. Duchy of Nassau	387,490		

States.	Population.
27. Lichtenstein	6,520
28. Hohenzoltern-Sigmaringen	42,990
29. Waldeck	56,480
30. Reuss (elder branch)	31,500
31. Reuss (younger branch)	72,950
32. Schaumburg-Lippe	27,600
33. Principality of Lippe Detmold	82,970
34. Landgravate of Hesse-Homburg	23,400
35. Free city of Lubeck	47,200
36. Frankfort	64,570
37. Bremen	57,400
38. Hamburg	153,500
Total	38,715,600

The present emperor, Ferdinand I., succeeded his father, Francis I., on the 2nd of March, 1835. The accession of Ferdinand to the throne has been marked by a tendency on the part of the Austrian cabinet to an enlightened course of domestic and foreign policy, the steady prosecution of which must prove of incalculable advantage for the empire and for Europe. Of the provinces which make up the grand imperial dominions of Austria, many of them have constitutions different from each other. Hungary, as an hereditary and limited monarchy, has been in the house of Austria ever since the year 1437, when the archduke, having married the only daughter of King Sigismund, succeeded to the crown. The nation, however, shares the legislative and executive power with the emperor, who exercises his authority only through the medium of the states, a kind of parliament assembling at fixed periods for the transaction of public business. The Hungarian nobility also possess great power; and they alone, in state language, are included under the appellation of the Hungarian people, the rest being included as an inferior race of beings. Bohemia, Moravia, and the Tyrolese, also have an influence in the general government, and possess, to a certain degree, the privileges of Hungary. But in most of the provincial diets, the authority of the crown is so great, that the representation can determine little else than the mode of raising taxes, so that the emperor is in a considerable degree unlimited in his sovereignty. In the ancient diet of the empire, Austria, independent of her electoral vote for Bohemia, had seven votes in the college of princes for the seven states of Austria Proper, Carinthia, Styria, Brixen, Trent, Tyrol, and Carniola. In the new diet, or "confederation of the sovereigns and free towns of Germany," Austria, without having any superiority over the other states in point of rank, was declared by the congress of Vienna, to have the presidency with a vote. In the general assembly Austria had now four votes. The executive government consists of four great departments, established at Vienne, organized originally by the councils of Maria Theresa. One of these regulates the internal concerns of the empire, another its foreign affairs, a third its military conduct, and the fourth the government of Hungary. These different parts of the administration are identified in numerous boards, chanceries, councils, ministries, &c. The laws and jurisprudence of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty's dominions are, taken altogether, very vague and complicated. Bohemia and Moravia are divided into circles, each under a separate court of judicature, from which lies a right of appeal to the supreme tribunal in the provincial capital. Every county in Hungary has its ruling assembly and court of justice, subject to an appeal to the district judicature, thence to the royal tribunal at Buda, and thence to the king in person. A new code of mild and salutary laws was, however, drawn up at the instance of the government, in the early part of the present century; which are made the universal code of jurisprudence for the Austrian empire.

"The importance of Austria in a political, not less than in a commercial point of view," says Mr. M'Culloch, "is evident; and as that importance depends altogether upon her power and the judicious developement of her resources, the western states are deeply interested in her prosper-

ity. From the nature of the various states united under the imperial sceptre, it is clear that Austria divides the rule over the Sclavonic nations of Europe with Russia; it must consequently be for her interest to attach to her sway so numerous a portion of her subjects, who have a strong band of sympathy with a growing and very powerful rival. A mild government and a sincere attention to the material as well as moral condition of her subjects, will prove the best means of linking together provinces differing so much from each other, and each of which is too powerful to be long retained by any other than gentle means. The conduct of the cabinet at Vienna justifies the expectation that its leading members are aware of the part which they are called upon to play, and of the true sources of their own influence, and of that of the nation in European politics. If unity at home be promoted, and the material and moral condition of the people be improved, the power of Austria will be such that she need fear nothing even if she had to contend single-handed with Russia or France. The variety, however, of her population, and the different, or supposed different interests, of her various provinces, are sufficient guarantys to the rest of Europe, that the power of Austria will not be abused. The pacific policy which her cabinet has generally observed is dictated by the peculiar composition of the state, and cannot safely be departed from. While Austria may thus be looked upon as a most useful ally by the other states of Europe, and as their grand bulwark against the power and ambition of Russia, her friendship will be courted in proportion to her increase of power. Her worst enemies are those, who, by fostering disunion at home, or keeping her people in ignorance of their true interests, weaken her influence, and prevent her from attaining a position to command the respect of her neighbours without exciting their apprehensions."

HUNGARY.

As this country now forms a part of the Austrian empire, but a short notice of it is necessary in this place. The Huns are described by the old historians as a nation of ferocious savages, emanating from Scythia, or Western Tartary. They lived upon roots, and flesh, half raw; they had neither houses nor cities; and their wives and children dwelt under tents. They fought without order, and without discipline; and trusted much to the swiftness of their horses. They do not appear to have been known to the Romans, until about the year 209 of the Christian era, at which time the Romans called them Pannonians.

The people of Hungary consist of seven distinct races, viz: Magyars, Slowacks, Croatians, Germans, Wallachians, Rusniacks, and Jews; of whom the Magyars are by far the most considerable. In their own country their oriental denomination of Magyars is usually given to them, the name of Hungarians being used only by other nations. Under Attila, they penetrated into Gaul, and became masters of the finest cities; and were approaching towards Paris, when Actius, the Roman general, defeated them near Troyes, in Campagne. After this battle Attila retired into Pannonia; but as soon as he had repaired his losses, he ravaged Italy; and was preparing anew to enter Gaul, when death put an end to his victories, in the year 454.

Attila was really what he had named himself, "the terror of men, and the scourge of God." After his death, great divisions took place among the Huns, who no longer kept that name, but assumed the appellation of Hungarians; but of their history during the time of the Western and Eastern empires, and the various wars and invasions which are said to have taken place between the third and tenth centuries, there is no information upon which reliance can be placed. They began to embrace Christianity under the guidance of German missionaries; Stephen, chief of the Hungarians, who had married the sister of the emperor Henry, was baptized at the beginning of the eleventh century. The pope bestowed upon him the title of "apostolic king;" and idolatry soon after disappeared in Hungary.

Stephen, thus honoured by the pope for his services in converting the heathens, endeavoured to strengthen his kingdom by the power of the hierarchy and the aristocrary. He established ten richly endowed bishoprics, and divided the whole empire into seventy counties. These officers and the bishops formed the senate of the kingdom, with whose concurrence King Stephen granted a constitution, the principal features of which are still preserved. The unsettled state of the succession to the crown, and the consequent interference of neighbouring princes, and of the Roman court, in the domestic concerns of Hungary; the inveterate hatred of the Magyars against the Germans, who were favoured by Peter, the successor of Stephen; the secret struggle of paganism with Christianity, and particularly the arrogance of the clergy and nobility, long retarded the prosperity of the country.

The religious zeal and bravery of St. Ladislaus, and the energy and prudence of Colomann, shine amid the darkness of this period. These two monarchs extended the boundaries of the empire; the former by the conquest of Croatia and Sclavonia, the latter by the conquest of Dalmatia. They asserted with firmness the dignity of the Hungarian crown, and the independence of the nation, against all foreign attacks; and restored order and tranquillity at home by wise laws and prudent regulations. The introduction of German colonists, from Flanders and Alsace, into Zips and Transylvania, by Geysa II., in 1148, had an important influence on those districts; and the connexion of Hungary with Constantinople during the reign of Bela III., who had been educated in that city, had a favourable effect on the country in general. The Magyars, who had previously passed the greater part of the year in tents, became more accustomed to living in towns, and to civil institutions. On the other hand, Hungary became connected with France by the second marriage of Bela with Margaret, sister to Henry, king of France, and widow of Henry, king of England. She introduced French elegance at the Hungarian court, and at this time we find the first mention of Hungarians studying at Paris; but these improvements were soon checked, and the kingdom was reduced to a most deplorable condition by the invasions of the Mongols in the middle of the 13th century. After the retreat of these wild hordes, Bela IV. endeavoured to heal the wounds of his country. He induced Germans to settle in the depopulated provinces, and elevated the condition of the citizens by increasing the number of the royal free cities. The king, Ladislaus, having been killed in 1290, by the Tartars, the emperor Rodolph of Hapsburg, pretending that Hungary was a fief of the empire, gave the crown to one of his sons; but, in 1319, Pope Boniface VIII., supposing it to be his right to dispose of the kingdom, invested Charibert, who supported his appointment with his sword. Under him Hungary became powerful; he added to his kingdom Croatia, Servia, Transylvania, Moldavia, and part of Dalmatia.

In 1437, Albert of Austria ascended the Hungarian throne. Under him commenced the intestine divisions which, joined to the irruptions of the

Turks, almost depopulated the country. The civil war between the people and the nobles, in the reign of Ladislaus V. and the Corvins, weakened it so much, that it was not in a state to resist the Ottoman power; and the army of Solyman entirely destroyed that of Hungary in 1526; when the king, Louis II., was killed. Two hundred thousand captives were taken away by the Turks. Ferdinand I., emperor of Germany, was elected king of Hungary by the states in 1527. He found the country weak in population, very poor, divided by the catholic and protestant factions, and occupied by the Turkish and German armies. It was in a deplorable state under all the kings of the house of Austria, but more particularly so under Leopold, elected in 1655. In his reign, Upper Hungary and Transylvania were the theatre of revolution, bloody war, and devastation. The Hungarians defended their liberties against Leopold; and the consequence was, the death of the principal nobility on the scaffold, at Vienna. A man named Emeric Tekeli, whose father and friends had fallen under the hands of the executioner, in order to avenge their deaths, raised a force in Hungary, in 1683, and joined Mahomet IV., then besieging Vienna. John Sobieski, king of Poland, Charles, duke of Lorraine, and the princes of the empire, had the good fortune to oblige Mahomet to retire, and thus relieved the emperor and his capital. Leopold was resolved to be revenged on the Hungarians; he erected a scaffold in the month of March, 1687, and it remained until the close of the year, during which time victims without number were immolated by the hands of the executioner. The shocking butcheries which the Hungarians saw practised on their countrymen, filled them with horror and intimidated them. The Turks were twice repulsed and Hungary submitted. Transylvania was conquered, and in possession of the Imperialists. The crown, which, since the time of Ferdinand I. had been elective, was now declared hereditary; and Joseph, son of Leopold, was crowned king at the close of the year 1687. It continued in the possession of the Old Austrian House until the death of Charles VI., 1740.

After his death, Maria Theresa, his daughter, who had married into the House of Lorraine, and was by right heiress to his hereditary states, was in great danger of being deprived. France and Bavaria overran her dominions; but at length she overcame all her difficulties; her husband, after the death of Charles VII. of Bavaria, was also invested with the joint sovereignty. She dying in 1780, her son, Joseph II., emperor of Germany, succeeded. He dying in 1790, his next brother, Peter Leopold, grand-duke of Tuscany, became king of Hungary; but died five months after his elevation, and was succeeded by his eldest son Francis.

By the constitution of Hungary the crown is still held to be elective. This point is not disputed. All that is insisted on is, that the heir of the House of Austria should be elected as often as a vacancy happens.

THE HISTORY OF PRUSSIA.

The name of *Prussians* was unknown till the tenth century; and its etymology is very uncertain; some authors suppose that the former inhabitants, alluding to their proximity to the Russians, called themselves Porussi, or, bordering on the Russians; for *po*, in the old Prussian lan-

guage signifies near. In that age the king of Poland took great pains, and even made use of fire and sword, for the conversion of the pagan Prussians to Christianity. Boleslaus I. began with chastising the Prussians for the murder of St. Albert, or Adelbert, called the apostle of that nation. His successors had also several quarrels with the Prussians; and Boleslaus IV. who committed dreadful ravages in this country, lost his life in an unsuccessful battle in 1163.

In the thirteenth century, the Prussians ravaged Culm, Cujavia and Masovia; upon which Conrad, duke of Masovia, was obliged to apply for assistance to his allies, who all wore the cross, which emblem they carried into the field against the Prussians, whom they considered as the enemies of the Christian name. But all their efforts proving ineffectual, the duke applied to the German knights of the Teutonic order, and strongly represented the great importance of defending the frontiers. Accordingly, in 1230, they obtained the palatinates of Culm and Doberzin for twenty years, and afterwards forever, with the absolute authority over any future conquests in Prussia. These knights, after a long and bloody war, during the space of fifty-three years, by the assistance of the sword-bearing knights, subdued the whole country. A war afterwards broke out between the Teutonic knights and the Lithuanians, which was attended with the most dreadful outrages. These knights made religion the cloak of their ambitious views, and, under the pretence of propagating the gospel of peace, committed the most inhuman barbarities; nay, it is generally agreed, that they extirpated the native Prussians, and planted the Germans there in their stead. Their territory at that time extended from the Oder along the Baltic, to the bay of Finland, and contained cities like Dantzic, Elbing, Thorn, Culm, &c. But, in 1410, their savage zeal received a terrible check; for after a most bloody battle they were wholly defeated.

In 1554 half of Prussia revolted from its obedience to the Teutonic order, and declared for Casimir III., king of Poland. This occasioned a fresh effusion of blood: till at last a peace was concluded in 1466, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-master should possess the other part, acknowledging themselves vassals of Poland. The knights soon endeavoured, but in vain, to throw off this yoke. In 1519 they raised new wars, which were terminated in 1525 by a peace concluded at Cracow; by which it was agreed, that the margrave Albert, grand-master of the Teutonic order, should be acknowledged duke or sovereign of the eastern part of Prussia, which he was to hold as a fief of Poland, and which was to descend to his male heirs; and upon failure of male issue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted three hundred years.

The new duke favoured the introduction of the reformed religion into his dominions, and founded the university of Konigsberg. The elector Joachim added the duchy of Prussia to the electoral house of Brandenburg, with which it had been closely connected. The reign of the elector George William was unhappily distinguished by the calamities of a thirty years' war, in which Prussia suffered much from the ravages of the Swedes. Frederic William, called the "great elector," from his extraordinary talents as a general, a statesman, and a politician, obtained, in 1656, by a treaty with Poland, an extinction of the homage heretofore paid to that kingdom; and he was acknowledged by the powers of Europe, a sovereign independent duke. He made firm his right in Juliers; obtained Cleves; recovered part of Pomerania; and increased the population of his country by affording an asylum to the refugees of France, after the impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes by Louis XIV. Frederic, his son, raised the duchy of Prussia to a kingdom; and on the 18th of

January, 1701, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, placed the crown with his own hands, on his own head and that of his consort; soon after which he was acknowledged king of Prussia by all the other Christian powers. His son, Frederic William I., who ascended the throne in 1713, greatly increased the population of his country by the favourable reception he gave to the distressed and persecuted Saltzburgers, as his grandfather had done by making it an asylum to the Huguenots, when driven out of France by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1684. He was wise, bold, and economical; his principal study the aggrandizement of his kingdom.

This monarch was succeeded in 1740 by his son Frederic II., then in the 29th year of his age, who rendered his kingdom formidable by his valour and his prudence, and promoted the happiness of his subjects by an amendment and simplification of the laws, the increase of commerce, and many wise regulations. His depredations on Poland, and his arbitrary and unjust violation of the guaranteed privileges of Dantzic, as well as the oppressions which the city of Thorn endured, though they might serve to aggrandize his kingdom, sullied his name in the eyes of an impartial posterity. On the death of the emperor Charles VI., in the same year, Frederic led a large army into Silesia, to a considerable part of which duchy he laid claim. He for some time maintained a war against Maria Theresa, daughter of the late emperor, who was married to the grand-duke of Tuscany; but on the 13th of June, 1742, a treaty between the queen of Hungary and the king of Prussia was signed at Breslau; by which the former ceded to the latter Upper and Lower Silesia, with the county of Glatz in Bohemia, and the king of Prussia engaged to pay certain merchants of London, the sums which they had advanced to the late emperor, commonly called "the Silesian loan;" and at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the contracting powers guaranteed to him whatever had been thus ceded. His father had ever paid peculiar attention to his army, but the attention of the son was more judiciously and effectually directed: for, in the year 1756, he had 150,000 of the best troops in Europe. At that time a league was formed against him by the empress-queen, and the court of Versailles; Augustus, king of Poland and elector of Saxony, had secretly become a party to this confederacy, the object of which was to subdue the Prussian dominions, and partition them among the contracting powers. Frederic obtained early and authentic information of his danger from Saxony, and proceeded with no less spirit than effect to avert it. He marched a powerful army into that electorate; compelled the troops of the elector to lay down their arms; became master of Dresden; entered the palace, got possession of the corespondence which had been carrying on against him, and published to all Europe the authentic documents he had thus obtained; which fully justified him in the hostilities he had thus commenced. The war soon after raged with great fury, and the empress of Russia joined the confederacy against this devoted monarch; but his unparalleled exertion, judicious measures, and personal bravery, which were powerfully supported by the wealth and arms of Great Britain, finally baffled all the attempts of his enemies, and the general peace which was ratified in 1763, terminated his labours in the field.

The Great Frederic, long regarded as the hero of the Prussian monarchy, and *par excellence* the hero of the age, brought to perfection what his father had so successfully begun. He resisted the power of half Europe, and, by his conquests and the wisdom of his administration, he doubled the number of his subjects, and almost the extent of his territories. He was as great in his projects as he was fortunate in their execution; he was a legislator, a general, a statesman, a scholar, and a philosopher. Indeed it may be said, he was one of those men whom nature only produces at long intervals; but at the same time, it must not be forgotten

that, instead of exercising a paternal care for his people, he regarded the Prussian nation as a foreign general regards the army under his command; his sole thoughts, in fact, appearing to be constantly centred in the love of fame and power. We collect from the writings of Dr. Moore, the following description of this extraordinary personage, as he appeared at the time the sketch was written: "The king of Prussia is below the middle size, well-made, and remarkably active for his time of life. He has become hardy by exercise and a laborious life, for his constitution seems originally to have been none of the strongest. His look announces spirit and penetration; he has fine blue eyes, and his countenance, upon the whole, may be said to be agreeable. His features acquire a wonderful degree of animation while he converses. He stoops considerably, and inclines his head almost constantly on one side; his tone of voice is the clearest almost imaginable. He talks a great deal, yet those who hear him regret that he does not say a great deal more. His observations are always lively, very often just, and few men possess the talent of repartee in greater perfection. He hardly ever varies his dress, which consists of a blue coat lined and faced with red, and a yellow waistcoat and breeches; he always wears boots with hussar tops, which fall in wrinkles about his ankles. From four or five o'clock in the morning till ten at night, this king dedicates all his hours, methodically, to particular occupations, either of business or amusement. He seldom appears at the queen's court, or any place where women form part of the assembly; consequently he is seldom seen at festivals. All his hours not employed in business he spends in reading, music, or the society of a few people whom he esteems. The only repose which the king allows to himself, is between the hours of ten at night and four in the morning; the rest of his time, in every season of the year, is devoted to action either of the body or mind, or both. While few objects are too great for this monarch's genius, none seem too small for his attention. Although a man of wit, yet he can continue methodically the routine of business with the patience and perseverance of the greatest dunce. The meanest of his subjects may apply to him in writing and are sure of an answer. His first business every morning is the perusing of papers addressed to him. A single word, written with his pencil in the margin, indicates the answer to be given, which is afterwards made out in form by his secretaries. He sits down to dinner precisely at noon; of late he has allowed more time at this repast than formerly; it is generally after three before he leaves the company. Eight or nine of his officers are generally invited to dine with him. At table, the king likes that every person should appear to be on a footing, and that the conversation should be carried on with perfect freedom. It is absolutely impossible for any man to enjoy an office in the king of Prussia's service, without performing the duty of it; but to those who know their business, and perform it exactly, he is an easy and equitable master. The king understands what ought to be done, and his servants are never exposed to the ridiculous or contradictory orders of ignorance, or the mortification of caprice. His favourites, of whatever kind, were never able to acquire influence over him in anything regarding business. Nobody ever knew better than this prince how to discriminate between the merits of those who serve him in the important departments of the state and those who contribute to his amusement. A man who performs the duty of his office with alertness and fidelity has nothing to apprehend from the king being fond of the company and conversation of his enemy; let the one be regaled at the king's table every day, while the other never receives a single invitation, yet the real merit of both is known; and if his adversary should ever try to turn the king's favour to the purpose of private hatred or malice, the attempt would be repelled with disdain, and the evil he intended for another would fall upon himself. The steady and unwearied

attention which this monarch has bestowed, for more than forty years, to the discipline of the army, is unparalleled either in the ancient or modern history of mankind. This perseverance of the king, as it is without example, so it is the most remarkable part of his extraordinary character. That degree of exertion which a vigorous mind is capable of making on some very important occasions, Frederic II. has made during his whole reign at a stretch, without permitting pleasure, indolence, disgust, or disappointment to interrupt his plan for a single day; and he has obliged every person, throughout the various departments of his government, to make the like exertion as far as their characters and strength could go. In what manner must such a king be served! and what is he not capable of performing! Twice every year he makes the circuit of his dominions. This great prince is so perfectly exempt from suspicion and personal fear, that he resides at Sans Souci, in his electoral dominions, without any guard whatever; an orderly sergeant or corporal only attends in the daytime, to carry occasional orders to the garrison at Potsdam, whither he alway returns in the evening."

Frederic died in 1786, and left to his nephew, Frederic William II. (by some called Frederic III.) an extensive and prosperous kingdom, a large and well-disciplined army, and a well-filled treasury; but he possessed none of those commanding talents, that energy, or that patient perseverance, which so eminently distinguished his predecessor. The finances of Prussia were soon exhausted; and in consequence of the high rank among the European states to which Frederic the Great had elevated her, she was obliged to take a prominent part in the most important affairs of the continent, which, without his genius, could not be maintained. Frederic William II. died in 1797, and was succeeded by his son Frederic William III.

By the partition of Poland in 1792, and its final dismemberment in 1795, Prussia acquired a great extension of territory, including the important city of Dantzic, and upwards of two millions of inhabitants. In 1796 the Prussian cabinet made a secret treaty with France; and after many sinister and vascillating movements, Prussia resolved upon the maintenance of a strict neutrality, which, in the state of Europe at that time, was impossible. In 1803 France occupied Hanover; and in 1805, when a third coalition was forming against France, Prussia wavered more than ever. Alexander of Russia appeared at Berlin, and brought about the convention of Potsdam, Nov. 3, 1805; but after the battle of Austerlitz, Prussia sought for and obtained peace with France, and was consequently compelled to submit to the conqueror. Again, when Napoleon had concluded the confederacy of the Rhine, Prussia stepped forward to arrest his gigantic power; but the battle of Jena disclosed to the world how impossible it was for her to contend against the emperor and his confederated allies. The peace of Tilsit reduced Prussia to half its former dimensions, which half had to support 150,000 French soldiers until the end of 1808, and to pay 120 millions of francs, while French troops were to retain possession of the fortresses of Strettin, Kustrien, and Glogau. The minister Von Stein, who was long at the head of affairs, was a most uncompromising enemy of France, and being in consequence compelled by them to quit Germany, Baron Hardenberg was placed at the head of the government as state-chancellor. The continuance of French oppression at length roused the spirit of the people. After Napoleon's Russian campaign the population rose *en masse*, and to their zealous efforts in the cause of oppressed Europe, the completeness of his discomfiture may be mainly attributed. The part which Prussia played in this great game of war we have elsewhere related, and it is not consistent with the limits of our work to make needless repetitions; it is sufficient to state, that at the general peace of 1815, Prussia became more powerful than ever; for, al

though a portion of her Polish dominions passed into the hands of Russia, it was more than compensated by valuable acquisitions in Saxony, Pomerania, &c. In June, 1840, the king died, and was succeeded by his son, Frederic IV., a prince possessing many amiable qualities. His majesty has since paid a visit to Queen Victoria, and was sponsor to the infant prince of Wales.

The following observations are so explanatory of the present influence of Prussia in the scale of European politics, that we unhesitatingly adopt them, from "The Brittannia;" and in transferring them to our pages, beg to acknowledge their worth: "Since the peace of 1815, Prussia has been tranquil. Her tremendous suffering in the war closed in a triumph of the most exalting and memorable rank. Of all nations she alone had the pre-eminent honour of sharing in the consummate victory which extinguished the French empire; and since that period she has advanced in a course of tranquil but progressive prosperity.

Prussia is a despotism, but the *beau ideal* of a despotism. As Plato imagined a republic, the future Plato who shall adopt the cause of despotism might refer to its reality as the most expressive instance of a government directed by the sole will of an intelligent, active and patriotic king. Bacon, we think, says that if an angel were on the throne, dospotism would be the finest government in the world. This is true, for the unity of council, the decision of conduct, the power which prevents tumults, and the impartiality which provides for justice to all, are the first essentials to all government. But, since men are not angels, and the best of kings cannot be security for the principles of his successor, we are compelled to find that security in constitutional restraints, in laws regulating the conduct of kings as well as of subjects, in coronation oaths, which are obligations, and in penalties which protect those obligations.

The chief immediate expenditure of all European nations is in their means of defence, whether military or naval. In England it is enormous. At this moment of universal peace, a peace, too, of twenty-five years, the expenses of the fleet and army are not under twelve millions of pounds. It is worth our wonder to know, that the whole expense of the military force of Prussia, 500,000 men, is not much more than half the expense of the force of England, or 90,000. This is by the simple but admirable arrangement of dividing the whole force into two parts, the standing army and the *landwehr*. The landwehr is a standing militia, which forms the reserve of the army, and is augmented from the ranks of the regular troops, instead of supplying recruits to them. This system is peculiar to Prussia, and is thus organized. The standing army is merely the military school, and the landwehr forms the nucleus of the army. The landwehr of the first class perform the annual exercises with the regular troops, and the eye of a military observer would detect no difference in the manœuvres of either corps. The second levy consists chiefly of soldiers who have been drafted from the standing army to the first levy, and from thence to the second, when arrived at the requisite age. The number of men required for the regular army is taken from those between 20 and 25 years of age, the remainder of whom are enrolled in the second levy (or landwehr of the second class). The period of service in the army is for three years; but young men of any station in life are allowed, instead, to enter the army as volunteers, and serve as privates for one year, without receiving any pay. At the end of one year they go over to the reserve, in which they continue two years; the others, after three years in the army and two in the reserve, are sent into the levy of the first class; and after twelve years' service in the army, the reserve and the landwehr of the first class pass into the landwehr of the second. The horses for the cavalry of the landwehr are furnished by the landed owners of the Circle during the continuance of the annual exercises. When arrived

at the age of 39, the soldiers of the second levy are incorporated in the landstrum, where they remain until the age of 50; they are then released from all military service.

We believe that Louis Philippe is as perfectly sincere in his wish for peace, as England is. But the people with whom he has to deal have none of his good sense, and the conquest of the Rhenish provinces is the dream of every cobbler in France. We agree entirely in the opinion that France would much more probably lose than gain by an attack on those provinces. Supposing England to be wholly passive, which it is notorious that she would not be, nay, could not, or that Russia would look on, German resistance, in its present state of preparation, would be formidable. The former facility of French conquest on the Rhine arose almost wholly from the weakness of the little Rhenish principalities, too small to resist separately and too jealous to unite. But the greater portion of those states are now consolidated into the Prussian sovereignty, and rest under the immediate direction of Austria."

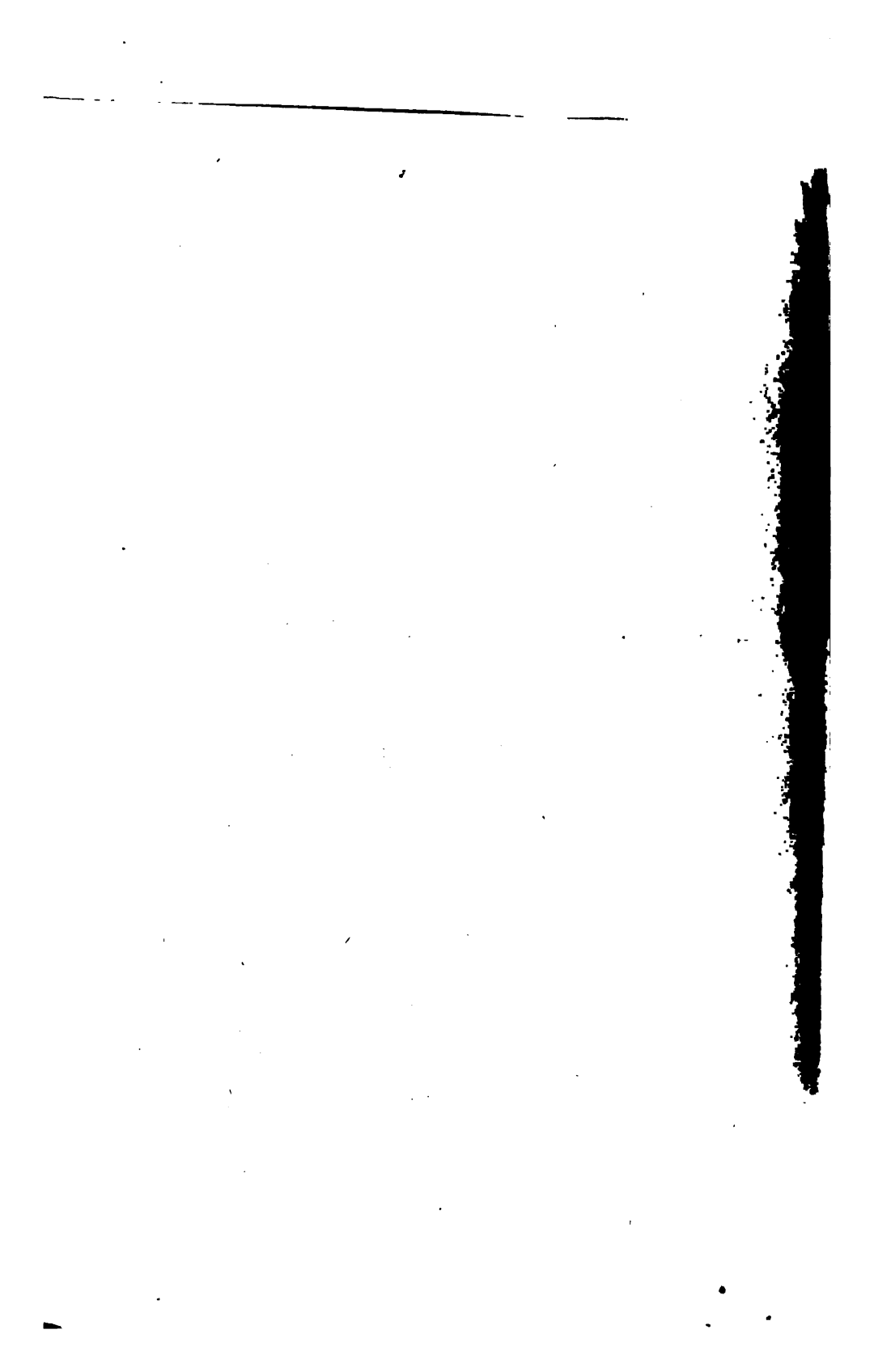
The principal part of the Prussian dominions lies continuously along the south shore of the Baltic, between Russia and Mecklenburg. The inland frontier of this part of the monarchy on the east and south is sufficiently connected; but on the west side its outline is very irregular, some small independent states being almost entirely surrounded by the Prussian dominions. But exclusive of this principal portion, there is an extensive Prussian territory on both sides of the Rhine; which is separated from the eastern part of the kingdom by Hesse-Cassell, part of Hanover, Brunswick, &c. The canton of Neufchatel, in Switzerland, and some detached territories in Saxony, also belong to Prussia. Considering the importance of making Prussia a first-rate power as a counterpoise to Russia on the one hand, and to France on the other, it is to be regretted that at the congress of Vienna her share of Poland was diminished, and that her territories were not rendered more compact.

THE HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS,

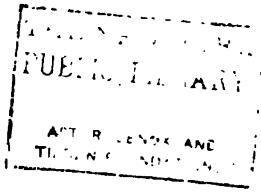
COMPRISING

HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

The Netherlands, or Low Countries, which now form two populous kingdoms, though of second-rate importance when compared with the great European powers, were at the commencement of the Christian era mere dreary marshes and dismal forests of vast extent, which were frequently overflowed by the sea. This inhospitable low track was thinly inhabited by people of German origin, called Batavians and Frisians, many of whom lived in miserable huts, raised on wooden piles, or built upon mounds of sand, to secure them above the reach of the tides. But it is not to be understood that the entire region was of this description; although it has been graphically said, that whole forests were occasionally thrown down by a tempest, or swept away by inundation—that the sea had no limits and the earth no solidity. The higher grounds, extend-



DUTCH SKATERS.



ing from the Rhine to the Scheldt, including that vast extent of woody country, the ancient forest of Ardennes, were inhabited by various tribes of the German race, who subsisted by agriculture and the chase. They had towns and villages in the heart of the forest; their country produced abundant supplies of corn and cattle; they were courageous and uncivilized; the rites of Druidism were observed, as in Britain; and the people consisted of two classes, chiefs and slaves.

When the Romans under Julius Cæsar subdued the Gauls, that warlike nation turned their arms also against the people we have just spoken of, whose country they denominated Gallia Belgica, or Belgium; but they did not pursue their conquests farther towards the north, thinking probably that the desert plains and patches of land rising, as it were, from their watery bed, were scarcely worth the trouble of exploring, much less of contending for. They accordingly offered peace and alliance to that part of the Netherlands now called Holland; while the Frisians were left to struggle with the Roman legions for their liberty. From the writings of Cæsar we learn that Flanders was occupied by the Menappi and Morini, Brabant by the Atuatici, Hainault and Namur by the Nervii (so remarkable for desperate courage as to excite the wonder of the veterans of Rome), Luxemburg and Limburg by the Eburones, &c. Cæsar emphatically describes the Belgians as the most warlike of the Gallic tribes, and observes that in stature and bulk they surpass the Romans. But though they fought with an energy and determination which nothing could exceed, the discipline and military skill of the Romans eventually obtained the mastery. In subduing this brave people the Romans had recourse to the most barbarous practises of ancient warfare; and for a time either extermination or expulsion seemed to be necessary to conquer their fierce and valiant spirits; thus we read, that in Cæsar's celebrated battle with the Nervii, near Namur, the army of the confederated tribes, amounting to 60,000 men, was reduced to 500, and that on taking the town of Tongres he sold 53,000 of the Atuatici for slaves. By degrees, however, they became incorporated with their conquerors, adopted their manners, and served in their armies, proving themselves, in many memorable instances, the ablest auxiliaries that ever fought by the side of the Roman legions. In this state they remained for about four centuries, during which time the Belgic population underwent considerable changes from the successive invasions of the Franks from the north, whose progress westward terminated in their establishing the Frankish empire in Gaul.

We have already had occasion more than once to notice, that when the Romans subjugated any country, the inhabitants, however barbarous, gradually became acquainted with the arts and advantages of civilized life, and that the subsequent prosperity and rank to which they attained in the scale of nations may justly be attributed to the connexion which subsisted between the conquerors and the conquered. Thus it was with the Belgic provinces. From the Romans they learned how to redeem their inundated lands from the briny flood, by constructing dykes, embankments, and canals; and as they were naturally an active and intelligent people, they drained their marshes, and prepared the land not merely as pasture for cattle and the growth of corn, but for the cultivation of choice fruits and vegetables; while towns and villages were built on higher ground, and the country, instead of being a dreary waste of bog-land and water, presented to the eye a varied prospect of fertility, and an industrious population. Towards the declension of the Roman empire, when its rulers were compelled to withdraw their troops from the provinces, Gallia Belgica shared the fate of the rest; and it was successively overrun by the various tribes from the north of Germany. But notwithstanding these serious disadvantages, the spirit of improvement kept pace with the age; more land was reclaimed from the ocean, and ren-

dered both productive and habitable. The maritime lowland descendants of the Menapii, now blended with Saxons and Frisians, continued to prosper in commerce and agriculture. Large towns had been built, and many arts and manufactures, brought from other countries, were carried on with credit and success. Bruges, Ghent, Antwerp, and other towns rose into importance, and the commercial importance of the Flemings was universally acknowledged.

At what precise time the Christian religion was introduced it is impossible to speak with certainty; but we know that, previous to the reign of Charlemagne, the conversion of the people had become general, and that churches and monasteries existed in various parts of the country. But no trace of the fierce and valiant warriors of former days remained; their swords had, indeed, been turned into ploughshares, and their spears into pruning-hooks, but feudal institutions had converted the free sons of the soil into abject vassals, who now toiled only to enrich the baronial lords and haughty priests, whose powers and possessions were immense. This state of vassalage did not, however, extend to the towns, the inhabitants of which were mostly merchants and manufactures, enjoying all the advantages of free citizens. Their industry and ingenuity not only made them wealthy, but obtained for them attention and respect; and, in the course of time, they elected their own magistrates, made their own laws, fortified their cities, and organized a regular militia from among themselves, so that they were able to maintain their privileges and defend their liberties against the encroachments of foreign princes or their own powerful nobles. At the period to which we are now referring, the maritime commerce of the Flemings had made a great progress with Spain and England, from whence they had obtained large importations of wool. Their skill in the manufacture of woolen stuffs and cloths had established for them a market in every foreign port; the herring-fishery was also a great source of wealth; and to these they added a large trade in corn, salt, and jewelry.

In the eleventh century the country was divided into duchies, counties, and imperial cities: Brabant, or Lower Lorraine, and afterward Luxemburg, Limburg, and Gueldres, were governed by dukes; Flanders, Holland, Zealand, Hainault, Artois, Namur, and Zutphen, by counts. Friesland Proper remained a free lordship; Utrecht became a bishopric, the secular authority of the bishop extending over Groningen and Overyssel. Of all these realms, the counts of Flanders were the most powerful, and, after their possessions had passed, in 1383, to the more powerful house of Burgundy, the latter, partly by marriages, partly by force or cession, obtained possession of the largest part of the Low Countries.

During the crusades the Flemish burghers obtained great advantages, owing to the mania with which many of the nobles were seized to join the holy leaguers. In order to raise money for equipping armies to combat against the Saracens, they were induced to part with their lands and to grant great privileges and political powers to their wealthy tenants, who thus were enabled to purchase independence and a jurisdiction of their own, as we have before mentioned. "The people, conscious of their power, gradually extorted from their rulers so many concessions, that the provinces formed, in reality, a democracy, and were only nominally subject to the monarch of France and his nobles. When the rest of Europe was subject to despotism, and involved in comparative ignorance and barbarism, the court of the counts of Flanders was the chosen residence of liberty, civilization, and useful knowledge; and when the ships of other nations scarcely ventured beyond the sight of land, those of the Flemish merchants traversed the ocean, and Bruges and Antwerp possessed the commerce and wealth of the north of Europe. In this state the provinces long continued, until they came under the dominion of the duke of Bur-

gundy, about the middle of the fifteenth century. Previous to this event, we find only unconnected duchies, counties, lordships, and towns, with innumerable rights, claims, and privileges, advanced and enforced now by subjects and vassals against each other or against their lords; and now by lords and vassals against the monarch, without the expression of any collective idea of Belgium as a nation. Under the Burgundian dynasty the commercial and manufacturing towns of the Low Countries enjoyed a remarkable prosperity. The famous order of the Golden Fleece was instituted in 1430; and before the end of the fifteenth century the city of Ypres had 4,000 looms, and the city of Ghent 50,000 weavers. Bruges and Antwerp were the great marts of the commercial world, and contained each about 200,000 inhabitants. In the Flemish court of the duke of Burgundy, named Philip the Good, about 1455, luxurious living was carried to a vicious and foolish excess. The wealthy were clad in gorgeous velvets, satins, and jewelry, and their banquets were given with almost incredible splendour.

"This luxury produced depravity and crime to such an extent that, in one year, 1,400 murders were committed in Ghent, in the gambling-houses and other resorts of debauchery. The arts were cultivated with great success. Van Dyck invented the beautiful oil colours for which the Flemish school is renowned. Painting on glass, polishing diamonds, lace, tapestry, and chimes were also invented in Belgium at this period. Most of the magnificent cathedrals and town-halls in the country were built in the 13th and 14th centuries. History, poetry, and learning were much cultivated, and the University of Louvain was the most celebrated in Europe. In 1477 Belgium passed under the dynasty of the empire of Austria; and after many years of contest between the despotic Maximilian and the democratic Flemings, the government, in 1519, descended to his grandson, Charles V., king of Spain and emperor of Germany. In his reign the affluence of the Flemish burghers attained its highest point. The city of Ghent contained 175,000 inhabitants, of whom 100,000 were engaged in weaving and other industrial arts. Bruges annually exported stuffs of English and Spanish wool to the value of 8,000,000 florins. The Scheldt at Antwerp often contained 2,500 vessels, waiting their turn to come to the wharfs; her gates were daily entered by 500 loaded waggons; and her exchange was attended, twice a day, by 5,000 merchants, who expended 130,000 golden crowns in a single banquet given to Philip II., son of Charles V. The value of the wool annually imported from England and Spain exceeded 4,000,000 pieces of gold. This amazing prosperity experienced a rapid and fatal decline under the malignant tyranny and bigotry of Philip. The doctrines of the protestant reformation had found very numerous adherents in Belgium; Lutheranism was preached with phrenzied zeal by several popular fanatics, who drew around them crowds amounting sometimes to 10,000 or 15,000. Parties of iconoclasts also appeared, and demolished the ornamental property of four hundred churches. Protestant persecution by the Inquisition had been commenced by Charles V.; but by Philip II. it was established in its most diabolical extravagance. He filled the country with Spanish soldiers, and commissioned the duke of Alva to extirpate, without mercy, every protestant heretic in Belgium. Volumes have been written to describe the proceedings of this able soldier, but sanguinary persecutor, who boasted that in less than six years he had put to death 18,000 men and women by the sword, the gibbet, the rack, and the flames. Ruin and dread of death in its most hideous forms drove thousands of artisans to England, where they introduced the manufacturing skill of Bruges and Ghent. Commerce and trade in Flanders dwindled away, many of the rich merchants were reduced to beg for bread, the great cities were half deserted, and forest wolves often devoured the scattered inhabitants of desolated villages."

These oppressions being exercised with the most tyrannical fury by Ferdinand of Toledo, duke of Alva, whom Philip had created governor, the Netherlands made a strong effort for their freedom, and William, prince of Orange, in conjunction with his brother, Count Louis of Nassau, undertook the defence of the inhabitants, in their noble struggles for religious and civil liberty. Accordingly, the states of Holland, in their own names conferred the *stadtholdership*, a title equivalent to lieutenant, on the former, and several other towns and provinces declared for him. He first united them, in 1576, in one general association, under the title of "The Pacification of Ghent." But this union being soon dissolved, the prince laboured to the utmost of his power to form a more durable alliance, which he happily accomplished in 1579. In that year the celebrated league of Utrecht was concluded, which gave name to the United Provinces, and became the basis and plan of the constitution.

The prince of Orange was afterwards on the point of being nominated the sovereign of these countries, but was treacherously shot by an assassin named Belthazar Gerhard, who had assumed the name of Francis Guyon. This man was supposed to have been hired to perpetrate the murder by the Spanish ministry, but no tortures could force a confession from him. The United Netherlands, however, continued to maintain, sword in hand, that liberty to which they had raised themselves; and Elizabeth of England took them under her protection, and rendered them essential assistance. When the earl of Leicester, the favourite of the queen, was sent over by her to the Netherlands in the year 1685, the states appointed him governor and captain-general of the United Provinces, or in other words the stadtholder; but his haughty carriage, and unskilful manner of conducting the war, soon rendered him unpopular, and the next year he returned to England. The Dutch, being afterwatds better supported by the English, baffled all the attempts of the Spaniards; and their commerce arrived at such a height, that in 1602 their celebrated East India company was established. Spain, being both weakened and discouraged by the ill success of a tedious war, in 1609 agreed to an armistice for twelve years, and in the very first article of the treaty acknowledged the United Netherlands to be a free and independent state. During this truce the republic attained to a degree of power which it has never since exceeded.

Compelled by necessity to make war against the Spanish fleets, the republicans soon became excellent sailors, and enterprising, indefatigable merchants, who visited every sea, and to whom no port was too distant, no obstacle too discouraging. The commerce of Cadiz, Antwerp, and Lisbon, fell into their hands; and in this way the United Netherlands were, in the middle of the 17th century, the first commercial state and the first maritime power in the world; for, with about one hundred vessels of war, they bade defiance to every rival, while England and France rejoiced in the humiliation of the dreaded monarchy of Spain. The Dutch East India Company, established in 1602, conquered islands and kingdoms in Asia; and with about two hundred ships, they carried on a trade with China and even with Japan. They alone supplied Europe with the productions of the spice islands. The gold, the pearls, the precious jewels of the East, all passed through their hands. The West India Company was not so successful, on account of the jealousy of England and France. Holland, nevertheless, for a long time maintained the dominion of the sea. Van Tromp and De Ruyter were victorious, and Louis XIV., who had laid a deep plan for humbling the daring republic, was finally exhausted, and obliged to sue for peace.

These signal successes were principally obtained by the able conduct of Prince Maurice of Nassau, the second son of the first stadtholder; and to the same dignity this prince was chosen when only twenty-one years

of age. He conducted the affairs of the states, during twenty years, with great ability and success. The latter part of this prince's government was sullied by cruelty and ingratitude; for he procured the condemnation and death of the pensionary Barnevelt, to whose influence he owed his elevation. This man, who was an Armenian in religion and a republican in politics, was sacrificed to his opinions; but his death caused the political principles for which he suffered to spread more widely. Those who opposed the stadtholder were afterwards called "the Louvestein party," from De Witt, burgomaster of Dort, and five other members of the states-general, being imprisoned in the castle for maintaining such sentiments.

In 1621 the war was again renewed, during which the stadtholder, Prince Frederic Henry, youngest son of the first William (who succeeded on the death of his half-brother, Prince Maurice, in 1625) greatly distinguished himself. This war was brought to a period in 1648, by the peace of Munster, by which treaty Philip IV., king of Spain, renounced all claim to the United Netherlands. Frederic was succeeded by his only son William, who was fourth stadtholder, being twenty-one years of age. He appears to have been ambitious, as was his father. In 1652 a war broke out between the United Provinces and England, the latter country being under a republican form of government: this war was terminated two years after, by a treaty, in which the states of Holland engaged forever to exclude the house of Orange from the stadtholdership of their province. In 1665 another war was kindled with England, at which time that country had regained its regal constitution; this war continued until the treaty of Breda. The states of Holland and West Friesland then passed an edict, by which they abolished the stadtholdership in their province. This was effected by the grand pensionary De Witt. When France formed a design to seize on the Spanish Netherlands, the United Provinces entered into an alliance with the crowns of England and Sweden for the defence of those countries; by which France was, in 1668, compelled to agree to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; but soon took a severe revenge by breaking that alliance, and inducing England, with some other powers, to enter into a league against the United Provinces; on which a war ensued. In this critical juncture, the republic, in 1672, nominated William, the young prince of Orange, captain and admiral general; and the populace compelled the states of Holland to invest him with the stadtholdership, which two years after was declared hereditary in his family. He was the fifth stadtholder and the third of that name; he married the princess Mary, eldest daughter of James II. of England, and became king of England.

In the year 1678 a peace was concluded with France, at Nimeguen; but it was of no long continuance, for, in 1688, the states supporting their stadtholder in his expedition to England, with a fleet and a large body of troops, France declared war against them, which was terminated by the the peace of Ryswick in 1697. At length, on the death of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700, the Spanish provinces fell to the share of the house of Austria, and the republic became involved in a war respecting that succession, which continued till the peace of Utrecht, in 1713.

William died king of England and stadtholder of the United Provinces, in 1702. He appointed John William Frizo, prince of Nassau Dietz, his sole heir, who was born 1687, and was drowned in crossing an arm of the sea at Mardyke, 14th July, 1711. Three months after his death his widow was delivered of a son, who was christened William, and afterwards became stadtholder; but on the death of William III. that office was laid aside, until, in 1722, the province of Guelders elected him their stadtholder, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the other provinces.

On the decease of the emperor Charles VI. the Dutch assisted the queen of Hungary against France, which drew on them the resentment of that

power; and in 1747, the French making an irruption into Dutch Flanders, the republic unanimously declared the above mentioned William, prince of Orange, stadtholder, captain-general, and admiral-in-chief, making those dignities hereditary in his family, even in the female and collateral branches. In the general war which broke out in Europe in 1756, the Dutch, taking no part in the quarrel, were perhaps the greatest gainers, by supplying the belligerent powers with naval and military stores; and when the dispute between Great Britain and the American colonies rekindled the flames of war, the most essential assistance was procured both to America and France, by means of the Dutch settlement at St. Eustatius, and of the freights brought by their ships. At length it was discovered by the capture of an American packet, that a treaty between the American States and the province of Holland was actually adjusted, and that Mr. Laurens, formerly of the congress, was appointed to reside at Amsterdam in a public capacity. This occasioned the court of London first to cancel all treaties of commerce and alliance which then subsisted between that kingdom and the United States, and soon after, in December, 1780, to issue a declaration of hostilities against the republic. The resentment of Great Britain proved extremely fatal to the possessions and wealth of the Dutch; the island of St. Eustatius, with a large fleet of valuable merchant ships, fell an easy prey to a naval and military force under the command of Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan; several homeward-bound East India ships, richly laden, were either taken by the English or destroyed; Negapatam, on the Coromandel coast, and their chief settlement on the Island of Ceylon, were wrested from them; and a fleet of merchant ships bound to the Baltic, convoyed by a squadron of Dutch men-of-war, under the command of Admiral Zoutman, were obliged to return to the Texel, and one of the 74 gun ships was sunk in a very sharp action which happened with a British squadron under the command of Admiral Hyde Parker.

In the mean time the emperor of Germany, attentive to the improvement of his dominions in the Low Countries, and desirous of procuring for his subjects the advantages to be derived from the extension of their commerce, determined to oblige the Dutch to allow a free navigation on the Scheldt, which river, by the treaty of Munster, in the year 1648, they possessed exclusively. To procure this, a ship, bearing the imperial flag, proceeded down the Scheldt from Antwerp; the captain being ordered not to submit to any detention or examination whatever from the ships belonging to republic of the Seven United Provinces, or to make any declaration at the custom-houses belonging to the republic on that river, or to acknowledge them in any manner whatever. At the same time another vessel was ordered to sail from Ostend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. They were both stopped by the Dutch on their passage, which the emperor construed into a declaration of war on the part of the republic, although by the 14th article of the treaty of Munster, entered into with Philip IV. of Spain, it was stipulated that the Scheldt should remain shut; in consequence of which that river had remained guarded by two forts, *Lillo* and *Lieskenshock*, assisted by guard-ships. An army of eighty thousand men was now assembling; and some imperial troops, with a train of artillery, advancing towards Lillo, the governor ordered the sluices to be opened in November, 1784, which laid a large extent of circumjacent country under water. A war between the emperor and the republic seemed to be inevitable; but the interposition of the courts of Versailles and Berlin prevented that evil; and the emperor at length agreed to give up his claims, on receiving a very large sum of money from the Dutch, to indemnify him for the expenses which had been incurred by his preparations for war.

William V., the seventh stadtholder, on the death of his father in 1751,

succeeded to that dignity when only three years of age; the princess-dowager, his mother, who was princess-royal of England, (being the eldest daughter of George II.), was appointed governess and guardian to the young prince; the prince of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel acted as captain-general and lord-high-admiral during the minority, which continued until the year 1766, when the prince having attained to the age of eighteen, took upon himself the administration of public affairs. The year following, he married the princess Frederica Wilhelmina of Prussia.

The amiable manners and benign disposition of this prince procured him general esteem, while the absolute ascendancy which the duke of Brunswick had acquired, during so long a minority, over the mind of a prince in whom gentleness and acquiescence were such prevailing qualities, caused him still to retain all his plenitude of power. It was not long, however, before the people began to complain that the most undisguised partiality was shown to foreigners in the appointments to offices. One of the chief favourites about the person of the prince of Orange was Capellan Vander Marsh, who had been advanced from a low origin to the station of chamberlain, and ennobled. This man, having continual opportunities of conversing with the prince in private, represented to him the necessity there was for him to interfere, by exerting that authority which the states had vested in him, and no longer to delegate it in so unqualified a manner. The prince acknowledged the justice of the suggestion, and promised to act upon it; but when instances were pointed out in which he might render himself highly popular by appointing certain persons to vacant offices, he found the restraints in which he had ever been accustomed to be held too strong to be broken. This led Capellan to desert the cause of his master, and to join the republican party. Soon after, the duke of Brunswick resigned his employment and quitted the country.

The republican, or anti-stadtholderian party, which, as we have already seen, had subsisted in the provinces ever since the year 1647, or from the death of Maurice the second stadtholder, found, in the ministry of France, the most effectual support which intrigue and a lavish distribution of money could render. More than a million of money had been issued from the treasury of the court of Versailles to further the interests of this party. However secretly these practices might be carried on, they were not concealed from the courts of London and Berlin, who were no less strenous to support the Orange party. Dissensions thus fomented by foreign interference, rose to a destructive height; and each party imbibed the most rancorous spirit against the other, insomuch that it was thought to be no longer safe for the prince and princess, with their family, to reside at the Hague; they therefore, in September, 1785, retired to Nimeguen. In this posture of affairs, the princess of Orange, who possessed an elevated mind, great abilities, and an enterprising spirit, determined on a very bold and decisive measure; which was, to proceed, without the prince, and with only two or three attendants, to the Hague, to make the experiment how far her presence and address could be rendered serviceable to the cause of the prince her husband. As she was proceeding on her journey on the 28th of June, 1787, she was stopped near Schoonhoven, by a commandant acting under the republican party, detained there during the succeeding night, and absolutely restricted from proceeding any farther. This indignity determined her to return to Nimeguen, and a representation of the treatment she had received was immediately transmitted to the king of Prussia, her brother, who had succeeded "the great Frederic" on that throne. The king supported the cause of his sister with great warmth; but the states of Holland not being disposed to make any concessions, the reigning duke of Brunswick, nephew to the duke who had filled the high offices in Holland, was placed at the head of an army of Prussians, amounting to eighteen thousand effective men, whom he

led on the 13th of September into the province of Guelderland, for the express purpose of restoring the prince of Orange to his rights.

The judicious distribution of the troops, and the vigour of their operations, reflected the highest credit on the commander. A general panic seized the republican party; only the town of Goream, which was commanded by Capellan, sustained a bombardment for about an hour; the other places of strength opened their gates at the first summons. Even the strong city of Utrecht, in which were ten thousand men in arms, and whose fortifications had been greatly strengthened, instead of meeting with firmness the approach of the enemy, was deserted by the whole republican party, with all the precipitancy of desperation. These rapid successes of the duke caused the Orange party to gain the ascendency at the Hague; but the city of Amsterdam remained determined to resist to the utmost; relying upon the prodigious strength of the place, which both nature and art, it had ever been supposed, contributed to render impregnable. The duke, however, made his arrangements for attacking the city in various directions, leading on his choicest troops to the most perilous assault in person. After a very obstinate conflict, some of the most important of the outworks were taken, which gave the besiegers a secure lodgement, and threatened the city with a destructive bombardment; the magistracy of the city finding themselves thus placed, thought it high time to submit to terms.

After this event, nothing material occurred till the invasion of the French revolutionists, which changed the whole aspect of affairs both in Holland and Belgium. In 1792 the national assembly sent General Dumouriez, at the head of a large army, to invade Belgium, it being an object of first-rate importance to deprive Austria of that country; and, in November, the French general gained a great victory at Jenappe, in Hainault. In a few days afterwards Dumouriez made his triumphant entry into Brussels. The party who favoured the French was made too strong, conjointly with the invaders, for the friends of the house of Orange to resist the invaders with any chance of success; accordingly, in a very short time, all the principal towns of the Netherlands submitted to the French; and it was pompously asserted by the latter, that it was the wish of the Belgians themselves to throw off the government of Austria, and be incorporated with the French republic. That many really wished this, there can be no doubt; but though the turbulent and disaffected were numerous, such an union was not desired by the majority of those who had anything to lose.

Although by a very easy conquest the French had gained possession of the Netherlands, the emperor of Austria took immediate measures with a view to its recovery. A large army, under the archduke Charles, joined by the duke of York and the prince of Orange, at the head of their English and Dutch troops, contended for a time with the armies of France; but after two years of warfare, in which the allied troops, but more particularly the British, suffered very severely, the cause of the stadtholder grew hopeless. When, therefore, in 1794, the victorious banners of republican France waved on the frontiers of Holland, the malcontents again rose. Pichegru, aided by the severity of the winter, in 1795, and by the favour of the popular party towards the French, made an easy conquest of Holland. The hereditary stadtholder fled with his family to England, and the Batavian republic was formed, May 16, 1795.

The old provinces were now merged into one republic; the legislative power, in imitation of the French, was given to a representative assembly; and the executive to a directory of five. The new republic was obliged to cede to France some southern districts, particularly Maestricht, Venloo, Limburg, and Dutch Flanders; to form a perpetual alliance with that state; pay a sum of one hundred millions of guilders; and allow the French troops to occupy its territories. Six years after, it was found

necessary to alter this constitution. The republic was again divided into the old provinces; in addition to which the "land of the generality" was formed into an eighth. The administration of the government was simplified; the legislative assembly diminished to thirty-five deputies; and the executive power was extended to a council of state of twelve men. Notwithstanding these alterations, the Batavian republic, incapable of effecting its ends with the feeble remains of its strength, saw its fleets overpowered by those of England; its colonies laid waste; its commerce limited to a coasting trade, and to the domestic consumption; and the bank of Amsterdam ruined. By the peace of Amiens, in 1802, it was deprived of Ceylon, one of its richest colonies. When peace had been concluded between Great Britain and France, and the hopes of better times were just awakened, the halcyon dream was suddenly dispelled, and the thunder of war again resounded on the shores of Holland. Its ports were blockaded, its fleets were annihilated, and its distant colonies fell into the power of the British; its prosperity, indeed, seemed forever gone; it was treated as a conquered country, and all the advantages promised by its republican allies proved a mere chimera.

In 1805, the Dutch constitution was changed for the third time; but, so far from any improvement taking place in the condition of the country, it continued to grow worse, and the only remedy that now seemed to present itself was the incorporation of Holland with the French empire. This accordingly took place in 1806, the mode in which it was accomplished being by erecting it into a kingdom, of which Louis Bonaparte, one of Napoleon's brothers, was invested with the sovereignty. But Holland was equally unfortunate as a kingdom, as when it was designated the Batavian republic. Though, by a treaty with France, King Louis possessed the rights of a constitutional monarch, and was disposed to exercise his authority with mildness and impartiality, he was made the mere instrument of Napoleon. It is true that he hesitated in enforcing, if he did not resist, the arbitrary decrees of the emperor, and that he incurred no small share of his disapprobation in consequence; but his efforts to promote the weal of his subjects proved wholly ineffectual, so thoroughly controlled was he by the power to whom he owed his regal elevation. Holland was excluded from the commercial privileges of France, though it had to follow all the wars of Napoleon. The national debt was augmented 1,2000,000,000 guilders. The only means by which the merchant could obtain a support was the smuggling trade with England. Almost all the former sources of prosperity were obstructed; and when Napoleon's Milan decree (of Nov. 11, 1807) was promulgated, and the Dutch ports were shut against British commerce, the trade of Holland was totally ruined. The well-disposed king, lamenting evils which he had no power to remedy, and finding that if he retained the sovereignty he must become a tyrant against his own will, voluntarily and unexpectedly abdicated the crown, in favour of his eldest son, a minor, July 1, 1810, and withdrew into the Austrian territory, as a private individual.

Napoleon did not, however, sanction his brother's measures. The French troops at once occupied Amsterdam, and a decree was passed for annexing Holland to the French empire; six senators, six deputies in the council of state, two judges in the court of cassation, and twenty-five deputies in the legislative body, being assigned to it. The continental system was then more strictly enforced, the taxes were augmented, and the conscription laws were introduced, whereby husbands, sons, and brothers were compelled to fight for a cause against which they had formerly contested. The Dutch departments, which had already been formed in the time of the kingdom, now constituted two military divisions; and all the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands were united under the dominion of France. At length the fortunes of Bonaparte began to decline, and

the people looked forward with the hope that their worst days had passed. The prince of Orange had died in England, in 1806; but his son was living, and on him the hopes of the nation were fixed. The Russian campaign of 1812, so fatal to the ambition of the French emperor, was regarded by the Dutch patriots as the advent of their deliverance. But Bonaparte was still in power, and most of the fortresses in the Netherlands were garrisoned with French soldiers. Ardent, therefore, as their feelings were, and anxious as were their hopes, they patiently watched that portentous cloud which appeared in the political horizon, and which at last burst with desolating fury on the hosts of Napoleon at Leipsic. That important battle may be said to have decided the fate of Belgium and Holland: the armies of the allies advanced against France; a combined Prussian and Russian force, under Bulow, was sent against the Netherlands, and was joined by a detachment from England, under General Graham. All the great towns now declared for William, prince of Orange, who, on the 13th of November, 1813, arrived at the Hague, and was welcomed with the sincerest tokens of joy and affection. He immediately repaired to Amsterdam, where he was proclaimed king, the people being unanimously desirous that the stadtholderate should be changed into an hereditary monarchy. It was not long before the whole country was entirely freed from the presence of the French, and the new sovereign, (the sixth in descent from the illustrious founder of the republic) was solemnly inaugurated on the 30th of March, 1814, and proclaimed by the title of William I.

By a vote of the congress of Vienna, the Belgic provinces were united with the United Netherlands, to form one kingdom, and William was recognised by all the powers as sovereign king of the Netherlands. At the time of this arrangement a treaty was made with Great Britain, which power agreed to restore all the colonies it had taken from the Dutch, except the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, Essequibo, Berbice, and Demerara. This union by no means gave entire satisfaction; indeed, there had never been any cordiality between the two people, owing to the religious prejudices of the Belgians, who are catholics, and not only dislike being governed by a protestant king, but have a kind of national animosity to the Dutch. The people, however, were obliged to acquiesce in the decision of the ruling power.

Scarcely was the union of Holland and Belgium accomplished, when the unexpected re-appearance of Bonaparte on the soil of France disturbed the peace of Europe; and the Netherlands became once more a scene of warfare. Louis XVIII. had taken refuge in Ghent, and there remained till the fate of the enemy was decided on the field of Waterloo. As the principal features of this important battle have been already given, it would be a repetition to introduce it in this place: we shall therefore merely notice a few incidents connected with the subject. In the month of June, 1815, Brussels presented a gay and animated appearance, it being the head-quarters of the British army. Officers in their bright uniforms thronged the park; and on the 15th the duke of Wellington received a dispatch from Marshal Blucher, (who had taken up his position at some few leagues distance, to guard the outposts of the allied armies), informing him that he had been suddenly and unexpectedly attacked by the French, and might probably require assistance. Orders were accordingly given by the duke for the troops in Brussels to be ready to march at a moment's notice; and then, having made his arrangements, in order not to create unnecessary alarm in the city, he and his officers attended a ball. Soon after midnight, however, the rolling of drums and sound of bugles alarmed the inhabitants, but all the information that could be obtained was, that the duke of Wellington had received a dispatch in the ball-room, of so urgent a kind, that some of the cavalry officers, whose regiments

were quartered in the adjacent villages, had not time to change their attire, but galloped off in their ball-room dresses. It was at length ascertained that the French had obtained advantages over the Prussians, who had been obliged to retreat and take up a new position, about seven miles from the village of Quatre Bras. Presently the hollow sound of distant cannon was distinctly heard; and in the absence of authentic information, busy rumour magnified the real danger, and circulated accounts of disasters the most appalling. On this day (the 16th) two battles were fought; one at Ligny, by the Prussians under Blucher, against Bonaparte in person; the other at Quatre Bras, between a part of the British army under the duke of Wellington, against the French troops commanded by marshal Ney, who had intercepted the duke on his march to aid the Prussians. At night authentic intelligence was received at Brussels that a sanguinary battle had been fought, which was to be renewed on the following day, but that the French were no nearer than they were in the morning. This latter assurance in some measure allayed the fears of the inhabitants; but the night was very generally occupied in packing up valuables, so that departure might not be impeded should the French ultimately become masters. At length it was ascertained that the heroic duke of Brunswick, and most of the gallant Highlanders who had marched from Brussels in the morning, were lying dead upon the field; and that the duke of Wellington had withdrawn to Waterloo, in order to be nearer the Prussians, who had retreated after their defeat at Ligny. Early next morning a number of long tilted waggons arrived, conveying wounded soldiers slowly through the town to the hospitals. Saturday was a day of breathless anxiety; all who had the means of conveyance, and many who had not, set out for Antwerp. But that day passed with very little fighting, both armies bieng engaged in making preparations for a decisive contest on the following (Sunday, June 18). At ten o'clock the battle of Waterloo commenced, and was not concluded till nine at night, when the complete overthrow of the French army was effected.

The union of Belgium and Holland being finally settled, the king of the Netherlands was inaugurated at Brussels, in presence of the states-general, on the 21st of September, 1815. His first care was to deserve the good opinion of his subjects by giving them equal laws, and in endeavours to put the youthful population of Belgium on an equal footing with those of Holland; for which purpose he established national schools in every village, and appointed teachers properly qualified to impart instruction on the system which he had found so successful in his old dominions. By degrees, these schools were augmented and improved; and, in the sequel, others of a very superior kind were founded, in which the fine arts were studied, and every incentive to emulation promoted by the distribution of prizes, &c. Nor was the attention of the king entirely confined to the mental improvement of his subjects. In order to cope with the manufactured goods of other countries, advantage was taken of the discoveries and inventions of scientific men wherever they were to be obtained; steam-engines and new machinery were introduced into the cotton factories; roads, canals, and railways were undertaken; coal and iron-mines were opened; every facility was given to commerce; and nothing but the inveterate prejudice of old habits prevented the agriculturists from benefitting by the wise suggestions of king William. In many respects the laws of the new kingdom of the Netherlands were assimilated to those of Great Britain, and the country increased in prosperity. Still it was evident there was a want of common feeling between the Belgic and Dutch subjects of the new monarchy; and the circumstance of the taxes in Belgium being increased since the union, was a constant and a not unreasonable theme for discontent to feed upon, inasmuch as they had been united without their own consent.

On the 17th of May, 1816, a Netherlandish fleet, under admiral Van der Capellan, joined the English under lord Exmouth, and compelled the dey of Algiers to recognize the European law of nations. On the 25th, a compact was concluded between the kings of Prussia and of the Netherlands respecting the cession of a tract of country to the latter: and, about the same time, the king of the Netherlands acceded to the holy alliance. The political relations of France with its new neighbour were pacific. With Sweden and Denmark, as with Spain and Portugal, the relations were purely commercial. But the amalgamation of the Dutch and Belgians into one nation was not successful: in short, a reciprocal aversion of the northern and southern people was several times exhibited, with great animosity, in the church, in the army, and even in the chambers of the states-general. As the difference of languages rendered the union difficult, the government, while it allowed the use of the French language as well as the Dutch in the proceedings of the states-general, abolished the use of French in judicial proceedings, and by the public authorities, only allowing advocates to make use of it for a certain period. The attempt to suppress the French language thus made two opposite parties the secret friends of France; the catholic Belgians, apprehensive for their church, because they believed the object was to propogate the protestant faith by means of the prohibition of French; and the Brabanters and Flemings adhered to France from old predilections. But the greatest obstacle to a union lay in the levying of taxes. Belgium, a manufacturing and agricultural country, wished to place the burdens on articles of export and import; while Holland, to spare its own commerce, wished to impose them on real estate. The budget, therefore, always employed a great part of the time of the states-general, who were convened in October of each year, alternately at the Hague and at Brussels. In the grand duchy of Luxemburg disturbances arose, which it was found necessary to quell by force, and the discordant elements of which the new kingdom of the Netherlands was composed, speedily led to its destruction. But it is probable that if the revolution in France, which drove one branch of the Bourbons from the throne and invested the other with sovereign power, had not occurred so early, the revolt of the Belgians would have been delayed a few years longer.

It was customary in Brussels to celebrate the king's birthday with illuminations and other rejoicings; but while the usual preparations were making, placards were posted on the walls, intimating that the example of the Parisians would on that occasion be followed. Thus warned, the magistrates issued orders to suspend the fête; and the performance of the opera of Massaniello, which had been advertised, was also prohibited, on the ground of its containing political allusions, which were calculated to excite the people, and accelerate the threatened revolt. There is no doubt that the act of forbidding the opera hastened the catastrophe; for a mob assembled in front of the theatre, demanded a representation of Massaniello; and so great was the tumult, that the government thought it prudent to comply. The opera was accordingly performed, and with such results as might be expected. The audience was composed chiefly of the lower classes, who being predisposed to mischief, a scene of riot and excess commenced as soon as they had left the theatre. The gunsmiths' shops were broken open, wine-cellars plundered, the house of the chief minister set on fire, and the residences of several other persons connected with the government broken into and despoiled. The rioters were, however, held in check by the more respectable inhabitants, who, imitating the Parisians, on the following day formed a national guard of citizen-soldiers, for the protection of their property against the mob, as well as for effecting a revolution, though by a more orderly and systematic plan of operations. A council of the most influential citizens under-

took the management of affairs, and sent a deputation to the king at the Hague, with a statement of their grievances, demanding redress. The king saw it was too late to temporise; he had either to accede to the revolutionists, or put down by force of arms the incipient rebellion; and he preferred the peril which must attend the latter attempt, to abandonment of his rights as sovereign of the Netherlands. At this critical moment, his sons, the prince of Orange and prince Frederic, at the head of a strong detachment of Dutch troops, were marching towards Brussels. When they reached Vilvorde, about five miles from the city, the citizens, in firm but respectful terms, informed the princes of their determination not to admit the soldiers; and not a moment was lost in unpaving the streets, cutting down trees to form barricades, and otherwise placing Brussels in the best state of defence in their power. Desirous that no blood should be spilt, and anxious to bring this *emeute* to a favorable issue, the prince of Orange rode into the city; but no cordial greeting welcomed him, and it was with some difficulty that he reached the palace, where he remained until the deputation returned from the Hague with the king's answer.

Meantime the revolt had spread throughout the Belgic provinces, and the acts of the insurgents at Liege, Namur, and other towns, showed that the spirit of discontent was not to be easily repressed. From among the citizens of Brussels was formed an executive government, under the title of the committee of public safety; but their councils were thought too moderate by the turbulent multitude, who refused to submit to their authority. On this being communicated to the king, Prince Frederic, as commander-in-chief of the Dutch army, received his majesty's orders to take immediate steps for enforcing obedience, on which he issued a proclamation, stating that if the people laid down their arms and returned peaceably to their allegiance, a general pardon would be granted, but not otherwise. This brought matters to an issue. A determined resistance on the part of the insurgents was resolved on, and a scene resembling that of the revolution in Paris followed; the fighting, like that, continued for three days. On the 27th of September the Dutch troops quitted Brussels, and the provisional government issued a proclamation declaring the independence of Belgium. Up to this period the citizens of Antwerp had taken no part in the revolution; but they now admitted a body of Belgic soldiers into the town, and, uniting with them, compelled the Dutch troops to take shelter within the citadel, which, after some smart cannonading that did considerable damage to the houses, they were allowed to keep possession of; the Belgian auxiliaries being prevailed upon to leave the citizens to defend themselves in the best manner they could. It was now fully evident that the king of Holland had not the power to retain, or rather to regain, the sovereignty of the southern provinces; and as the four great powers, Russia, Austria, Prussia, and England, had been the means of effecting the union, envoys from the three foreign courts were sent to London to settle the terms upon which the kingdom of the Netherlands should be separated. The council of Brussels appeared to be in favour of a constitutional monarchy, and they offered the crown to the duke of Nemours, second son of Louis Philippe of France. The prince, however, declined the offer, and they then fixed on Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, who, after some hesitation, consented to become king of the Belgians, and was proclaimed on the 4th of July, by the title of Leopold the First.

The ambassadors who had met in London to settle the terms of separation, agreed that, while the negotiations were pending, all hostilities should cease between the Belgians and Dutch, and that the troops of both parties should retire within the limits of their respective countries, according to their former boundaries. But this arrangement was opposed by the king of Holland, because it would compel him to surrender the citadel of Antwerp and also some forts on the Scheldt. Austria, Russia and

Prussia declined to interfere in the matter; but Great Britain and France, forseeing that no final settlement could be effected while the Dutch held these important places, took a decided part in insisting on their immediate evacuation. The citadel of Antwerp was one of the strongest in Europe, and its garrison of five thousand men was commanded by General Chasse, an intrepid and skilful veteran. An English fleet was sent to blockade the mouth of the Scheldt, while a French army of sixty thousand men, under Marshal Gerard, laid siege to the citadel of Antwerp; but before the siege commenced, the two generals came to an understanding that the town should not be injured by either party, and that the inhabitants should take no part in the contest. As far as possible this arrangement was observed, but during ten days of almost incessant cannonading, the loss of life on each side was great, and the citadel was literally battered to pieces. At length the old general offered to capitulate, on condition that he and his men might be allowed to retire to Holland; this, however, Marshal Gerard refused, unless two of the forts on the Scheldt were given up; but as they were not under the command of General Chasse, and the king refused to sanction their surrender, the brave defender of the citadel, and the surviving remnant of the garrison, were marched into France as prisoners of war. There were still some minor points of dispute left untouched, particularly the appropriation of the provinces of Limburg and Luxemburg; but the siege of Antwerp was the last event of a hostile nature that occurred. The direct interference of England and France had terminated as must have been expected; and though there was much contention respecting the possession of the two provinces just mentioned, it was eventually arranged, through the mediation of the British government, that they should be divided between the two kingdoms, the king of Holland retaining Luxemburg, with the title of grand duke.

King William I. being nearly seventy years of age, and wishing to retire from the cares of public life, in 1840 abdicated in favour of his son, the hereditary prince of Orange, who was proclaimed king on the 8th of October. No man can be more generally esteemed by his subjects than the new sovereign, or more entitled to their esteem; and, indeed, it may with truth be said, that William II. of Holland, and Leopold I. of Belgium, are both well calculated to promote the prosperity of their respective countries and the well-being of those over whom they have been destined to sway the regal sceptre. On the 12th of December, 1843, the ex-king of Holland died, suddenly, at Berlin, having been seized with apoplexy.

THE HISTORY OF

SWEDEN, DENMARK, AND NORWAY.

SWEDEN.

The early history of Sweden is no less involved in fables than that of most other nations; but as it is famous for being the native country of the fierce and warlike Goths, whose emigrations effected the most singular and rapid revolutions on the European continent that history records, we shall in the first place consider who were the earliest inhabitants of those

rugged coasts and mountainous regions, whence issued the bold and barbarous Northmen, whose devastations and cruelties rendered them terrible as the invaders of more peaceful and sunnier lands.

The ancient name of the region now comprehending the three northern kingdoms, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, was Scandinavia; but the inhabitants were at that time known to the nations of the south of Europe only by vague rumours. About A. D. 250, commence the fabulous accounts of Odin, or Woden. Till the middle of the ninth century Scandinavia was little known; but the bold expeditions of the natives into the southern and western parts of Europe, and the diffusion of Christianity among them, about the year 1000, shed light on this region. The kingdom of the Swedes was separated from that of the Goths till the twelfth century; but in 1132 both nations, with their several dependencies, were united under Suercher, king of the Ostrogoths, who was proclaimed king of the Swedes and Goths. It was afterwards agreed by both nations, that the Swedish and Gothic princes should hold the sovereignty alternately; but this occasioned many bloody intestine wars.

Magnus Smeck added Schonen and the adjacent territories to the kingdom; but at length, by his mal-administration, he deprived both himself and his family of the throne; for after Albert, duke of Mecklenburg, his sister's son, had been elected king, Margaret, who was heiress to the crowns of Denmark and Norway, compelled him to give up the kingdom of Sweden to her; and by the union of Calmar, in the year 1397, the same princess united the three northern kingdoms under one head. This union excited in the Swedes the greatest indignation; and in 1448, the Swedes and Norwegians elected a separate king, Karl Knutsen, or Charles, the son of Canute, and formally renounced the union. After the death of Charles, several of the family of Charles reigned in succession, with the title of presidents, though with regal authority, until, in 1520, Christian II. of Denmark, was acknowledged king of Sweden. But his tyranny disgusted the people. Even during the ceremony of the coronation, notwithstanding his promises of amnesty, he ordered ninety-four Swedish noblemen to be beheaded in the market-place of Stockholm, and perpetrated similar acts of cruelty in the provinces. At length, by the assistance of a Swedish nobleman, named Gustavus Erickson von Vasa, they shook off the Danish yoke. The brave Gustavus Vasa, who rendered himself extremely popular by the conduct and intrepidity he showed in rescuing Sweden from the oppression of the Danes, was elected king, and not only became a founder of a line of monarchs of his family, but advanced the royal authority to a very great height.

The crown of Sweden had hitherto been elective; but the Swedes had been deprived of this right under the Danish kings: according to the laws of Sweden, the royal authority was so limited that the king could neither make war nor peace, levy money nor troops, without the consent of the states; he could neither erect a fortress, introduce foreign troops, nor put any strong place into the hands of a foreigner. The revenue of the crown then solely arose from some inconsiderable domains about Upsal, a small poll-tax on the peasants, and from fines and forfeitures which fell to the crown in criminal proceedings. The government of castles, fiefs, or manors, which were at first granted by the crown only for a term of years, or at most for life, were insensibly changed into hereditary possessions, which the nobility held by force, without paying the rents that had been reserved out of them. This was done by the bishops and clergy who possessed such estates, on pretence that the lands of the church ought to be exempted from all duties; and by these encroachments the royal revenue was so reduced, that the king could scarcely maintain more than five hundred horse. He was considered only as a kind of captain-general during a war, and as president of the senate in time of peace.

The prelates and nobility fortified their castles, and rendered them the seats of so many independent states; and arming their vassals, frequently made war on each other, and sometimes on their sovereign; they neither sought nor expected redress from the king's courts, when they thought themselves injured: but proceeded by force of arms to avenge their own cause. The kingdoms of Norway and Denmark were under the like form of government; both were elective, and had their respective senates, without whose concurrence or that of the states assembled in their diet, the king could transact nothing of importance.

But to return to Gustavus Vasa, who found the kingdom in this situation; the states, to express their ardent gratitude to their deliverer, passed a solemn decree, by which they obliged themselves to approve whatsoever that patriot should think fit to enact for the preservation of his dignity, against any pretender set up in opposition to him. They, in particular, impowered him to make peace and war, and resolved that his enemies should be accounted the enemies of the nation. This happened at the time that the doctrines of the reformation began to prevail in Sweden: and the Romish clergy, Gustavus' greatest enemies, being in possession of one half of the lands and revenues of the kingdom, also holding many royal castles and domains, the new king, in order to resume these possessions, embraced the doctrines of Luther, procured an act to be passed, by which it was ordained, that the bishops should immediately surrender their castles to the king, and disband their troops; that their pretended rights to fines and forfeited estates, which originally belonged to the crown, should be abrogated: that all the superfluous plate and bells belonging to the churches should be sold to pay the public debts; that all the grants of estates to the clergy, since the year 1445, should be revoked, and the lands re-united to the crown; that two-thirds of the tithes, generally possessed by the bishops and abbots, should be sequestered, for maintaining the army in the time of war, and for erecting and endowing public schools and hospitals in time of peace; and that all the privileges of the clergy should be entirely at the king's disposal. Vasa having thus obtained a constitutional title to the revenues of the church, marched through great part of his dominions, at the head of a body of horse, to see the act put into execution, attended by Olaus Petri, and the Lutheran doctors, whom he ordered to preach before him in the principal churches. Wherever he came, he commanded the titles and grants by which the clergy held their lands to be brought before him, and either reunited them to the crown, or restored them to the heirs of the ancient proprietors; by which means he recovered from the secular and regular clergy above two-thirds of their revenues, and seized upon near thirteen thousand considerable farms. He also caused the superfluous church plate to be melted down and carried into the public treasury. This, indeed, occasioned some conspiracies and insurrections; but they were easily quelled. Having now succeeded so happily in suppressing his greatest enemies, he obliged the nobility and gentry who held the crown lands, which they had kept as their own, to resign their fiefs or to pay the rents that were originally due to the crown. Upon this they were obliged to compound with the king, and agree to pay him annually a certain sum for all their fiefs and manors. The crown was next rendered hereditary to the issue of the reigning prince by the free consent of the states, and it has accordingly been enjoyed by his descendants to the present century. Gustavus Vasa died in 1650; but the division of the kingdom among his children, the mal-administration of his son John, together with the propensity of Erick, John's brother, and of Sigismund, king of Poland, the son of John, to popery, threw the kingdom into great disorder, which it required all the energy and prudence of Charles IX. and his son Gustavus Adolphus, to suppress.

Under the latter prince, who began his reign in 1611, the importance of Sweden rose to its greatest height: his armies supported the protestant interest in Europe, whilst his domestic policy established good order in his kingdom. He reduced the greatest part of Livonia, and penetrated so far into Germany as to become formidable to the emperor; but in the year 1632, he lost his life at the battle of Lutzen, dying in the arms of victory. This prince was one of those rare mortals that join to the abilities of a great warrior and statesman the virtues that refine and exalt humanity. In his life and death he gained the noblest reward that worth like his could crave. His daughter Christina succeeded to the throne in 1633, when only six years of age. She wrested from Norway and Denmark the territories of Jemptland and Harjedalen, with the islands of Gothland and Oeland, and in 1648 added Upper Pomerania, Bremen, Verden, and Wismar, to the Swedish dominions. She was no less remarkable for her learning and capacity, than for her singularities of conduct. In the year 1654, that princess solemnly resigned the crown of Sweden, and was very instrumental in advancing to the throne her cousin Charles Gustavus, prince palatine of Deux-Ponts, son of John Casimir, prince palatine of the Rhine, by Catharine, daughter of Charles IX. and sister to Gustavus Adolphus, whom her subjects had wished her to have made her husband. Charles, who coveted a crown rather than a marriage with his cousin, in 1658 added Schonen, Halland, and other places to the Swedish dominions. His son Charles XI. re-assumed all the alienated crown lands, and rendered himself an absolute monarch.

Charles XI. dying in 1697, in the forty-second year of his age, and the thirty-seventh of his reign, was succeeded by his only son Charles XII., who being under fifteen years of age, a regency was appointed; but the uncommon talents of this young prince soon procured for him the government; and through his mediation the peace of Ryswick was concluded, before he had completed his 16th year. In the year 1700, the Poles, Danes, and Russians, taking advantage of the king's youth, endeavoured to recover the dominions of which their ancestors had been deprived. The English and Dutch sent a fleet into the Baltic to his assistance, and compelled the Danes to conclude a peace with him. This young prince then marched against the Russians and Poles, whom at the beginning of the war he defeated in almost every engagement, with numbers far inferior to those of his enemies, though he had well-disciplined veteran troops of Saxons to contend with, as well as Russians and Poles.

In the year 1708, the glory of Sweden rose to an unparalleled height. Its king then held the balance of Europe, and might have dictated to all its powers; but the superior address of the duke of Marlborough, whose abilities as a statesman and negotiator were equal to those which he possessed as a general, caused the force of Sweden to be directed against the Russians, which might otherwise have turned the fortune of the war then waging against France. The czar Peter the Great, improving by his former miscarriages, at length formed his troops to conquest: Charles was defeated at Pultowa, in June, 1709; his whole army, consisting of 30,000 men, entirely cut off, or made prisoners, except three or four hundred horse, with whom the king escaped to Bender, in Turkey. He there gave signal proofs of desperate intrepidity, as incapable of fear as void of discretion, having with a handful of men performed prodigies of personal valour against the whole force of the Turks: but he was at length made prisoner.

The numerous enemies of Sweden availed themselves of this reverse of fortune. Frederic IV., then king of Denmark, declared war, but could not obtain the object for which he contended. Augustus, the deposed king of Poland, was more successful. The Russians overran the most valuable territories held by the Swedes on the eastern shores of the

Baltic, whilst those in Germany were divided among the confederates: Swedish Pomerania was annexed to Prussia, and Bremen and Verden fell into the hands of the Danes, whose king disposed of them to the elector of Hanover, afterwards king George the First of England. Thus were the accessions of territory, which had been made by the princes of the house of Vasa, severed from that kingdom. A peace being ratified in 1714, Charles regained his liberty; but his passion for war hurrying him into fresh broils, he met his death by a cannon-ball at the siege of Fredericshall, when he had invaded Norway, in 1718.

Two more extraordinary characters never appeared on the stage of human life at one time, than Peter the Great of Russia, and Charles the Twelfth of Sweden. Of the former we shall speak more at large anon: of the latter it may be safely asserted, that no dangers, however sudden or imminent, ever occasioned in him the least dismay, even when they have shaken the constancy of the firmest among his followers: he seems, in short, to have been a man divested of the smallest particle of fear: and the manner in which he is related to have endured cold and hunger shew him to have been a prodigy of strength as well as of courage. His rapid successes against the combined forces of Denmark, Poland, and Russia, prove him to have been an able general; but although his successes astonished all Europe, yet in their consequences they were fatal to the kingdom which he governed. A strong resentment against the unprovoked attacks upon him, led him to meditate enterprises against his enemies, extravagant and impracticable in their nature; and the cool and undismayed perseverance of his great adversary, the czar Peter, at length prevailed over his ill-directed ardour.

Upon the death of Charles, his sister Ulrica Eleanor ascended the throne, by the free election of the states; but first gave up all pretensions to arbitrary power; and in 1720, by consent of the diet, transferred the government to her husband Frederic, hereditary prince of Hesse Cassel. Frederic having no issue, the states, in 1743, nominated Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstein and bishop of Lubec, his successor, by a majority of only two votes. Adolphus, on the decease of Frederic, in 1751, assumed the reins of government. He married Louisa Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia, who lived to the year 1782. The new form of government established at this juncture, consisted of fifty-one articles, all tending to abridge the powers of the crown, and to render the Swedish sovereign the most limited monarch in Europe. It was settled, that the supreme legislative authority should reside absolutely and solely in the states of the realm assembled in diet, which, whether convened by the king or not, must regularly assemble once in three years, and could only be dissolved by their own consent. During the recess of the diet, the executive power resided in the king and senate; but, as the king was bound in all affairs to abide by the opinion of the majority, and as he possessed only two votes, and the casting voice in case of equal suffrages, he was almost entirely subordinate to that body, and could be considered in no higher view than as its president. At the same time, the senate itself ultimately depended upon the states; as its members, though nominally appointed for life, yet were in a great measure under the control of the states, being amenable to that assembly, and liable to be removed from their office in case of real or pretended malversation. Thus the supreme authority resided in a tumultuous assembly, composed of the four orders. Although all the statutes were signed by the king, and the ordinances of the senate issued in his name, yet in neither case did he possess a negative: and, in order to obviate the possibility of his attempting to exercise that power, it was enacted in the diet of 1756, that "in all affairs, without exception, which had hitherto required the sign-manual, his majesty's name might be affixed by a stamp, whenever he should have declined his

signature at the first or second request of the senate." In consequence of this, the king was only an ostensible instrument in the hands of one of the two great parties which at that time divided and governed the kingdom, as either obtained the superior influence in the diet. Fully determined to wrest from the senate their assumed power, and to recover that participation of authority which the constitution had assigned to the crown, the king proceeded to a measure both bold and decisive. On the 13th of December, 1768, he signed a declaration, by which he formally abdicated the crown of Sweden; and, by giving public notice throughout his dominions of this step, at once suspended all functions of government. The senate felt their authority insufficient to counteract such a measure, for their orders were disputed by all the colleges of state, who had ceased to transact the business of their several departments. The magistrates of Stockholm, agreeably with the form of government, were proceeding to convoke the order of "burghers," which compelled the senate to consent to the desired assembly of the diet; and the king's concurrence was requested to confirm the proclamation for that purpose, which being given, he resumed the reins of government. At the meeting of the diet, which took place on the 19th of April, 1769, though it coincided in some particulars with the king's views, yet was far from effecting everything which he aimed at.

Adolphus Frederic died February 12th, 1771, and was succeeded by Gustavus III., his eldest son, then twenty-five years of age. The accession of this young prince to the throne, with the prepossession of the people strongly in his favour, was a favourable period for extending the power of the crown by the reduction of that of the senate. An aristocracy naturally and rapidly degenerates into despotism; the yoke of which is rendered more intolerable to a people in proportion as the oppressions of a number of tyrants are more grievous than those of a single one. The new king found his people divided into two great political parties, distinguished by the name of "hats" and "caps;" the former espoused the interest of the court, the latter the country or patriotic party. The most masterly strokes of policy, as well as the most profound dissimulation, were used by this monarch to circumvent and destroy the influence of the senate. The people were grievously oppressed; for besides the rigorous exactions made on the common people by their rulers, they suffered every calamity which a year of great scarcity necessarily occasions. The army was devoted to his interest; and his two brothers, Prince Charles and Prince Frederic Augustus, each commanded a body of troops. The next year, while the king was amusing the senate at Stockholm with the warmest professions of disinterestedness, and his wishes to be thought only the first citizen of a free country, an insurrection of the military happened at Christianstadt, in the province of Scano; which was set on foot by one Hellichius, who commanded there. The plea made use of to justify it was, the tyranny and oppression of the governing powers. Prince Charles, who was purposely in those parts, made this a pretence to assemble the troops under his command, while the king, his brother, who was at Ostrogothia, put himself at the same time at the head of the troops there. The senate was much alarmed at these proceedings, while the king, with the most consummate dissimulation, expressed his resentment against the insurgents, and his zeal to suppress them; at the same time, by stationing the military force in Stockholm so as to surround the senate-house, he effectually controlled the deliberations carried on there. In this exigency the senate found themselves totally abandoned by the soldiery, while the king, being thus supported, was enabled to accomplish a great and almost unparalleled revolution, and to deprive an extensive nation of its liberties in a single morning, without bloodshed, without noise, without tumult, and without opposition; while

the people flocked together with as much indifference and tranquility as if it had been merely some holiday sport.

It is said that only five persons in the kingdom were entrusted with the design. Very few were imprisoned, and that only for a short time; nor did any one experience, in the smallest degree, a diminution of the royal favour on account of their opposition. The senate took a new oath of allegiance to the prince, and tranquility was restored throughout the kingdom. Six years after this revolution took place the king convened the senate; but finding the house of nobles very much disposed to oppose the views of royalty, he suddenly dissolved that assembly. On the 16th of March, 1792, the king being at a masked ball, an assassin, named Ankerstroem, discharged a pistol behind him, the contents of which lodged between the hip and the back-bone, with which wound the king languished until the 29th, and then expired. The day after he received it, he sanctioned an edict, by which his brother the duke of Sudermania was appointed regent of the kingdom, and guardian of his only son, then a minor, being fourteen years of age. This prince, upon the death of his father succeeded to the crown, under the title of Gustavus IV.

He accordingly assumed the government, under the guardianship of the duke of Sudermania. No sooner, however, had he attained his majority than he embroiled himself in hostilities with France. He next engaged in an unequal contest with Russia; the consequence of which was that the latter overran Finland, and threatened an attack on Stockholm. As Sweden was at the time in alliance with England, a British army, under Sir John Moore, was sent over to the assistance of Gustavus; but that general refusing to submit to the dictates of the eccentric, if not insane, king, soon returned home. Though the Swedes fought with great courage, they were unable to resist the overwhelming force of the Russians, especially as the limited resources of Sweden were wasted by Gustavus in senseless and impracticable enterprises. At length the Swedes grew weary of a sovereign whose conduct threatened the ruin of their country; he was arrested by some of his officers, deposed, and the crown transferred to the duke of Sudermania, who took the title of Charles XIII. (A. D. 1809); Prince Christian of Holstein-Augustenburg (who adopted the name of Charles Augustus) being at the same time declared crown-prince and successor. The new monarch was forced to purchase peace from Russia by the cession of Finland, and the exclusion of British vessels from the ports of Sweden. The crown-prince, however, dying suddenly, Marshal Bernadotte, prince of Ponte Corvo, was elected successor to the crown by a diet held at Orebro in 1810; and having accepted the honour, and been adopted by the king under the name of Charles John, he soon after arrived in Sweden, of which he became king on the death of Charles XIII. in 1818.

Sweden now declared war against Great Britain; but the pressure of the war, and the increasing encroachments of France, produced a change of policy in 1812, aud she joined the allies against Napoleon. By the peace with Denmark, concluded at Kiel, Jan. 14, 1814, Sweden received Norway as an independent, free, indivisible, and inalienable kingdom, in return for her possessions in Pomerania and the island of Rugen.

Since the union of Norway and Sweden, this double kingdom has combined, under one king and two very different constitutions, two proud and free-spirited nations, each jealous of its peculiar privileges. The political condition of of Sweden and Norway forms a permanent partition between them; there, a jealous aristocracy is perpetually watching over its ancient privileges; here, the democracy struggles to defend its new-born rights. In both kingdoms the peasantry and the citizens hold a higher rank than in most European states. In Norway there is no hereditary nobility, and the veto of the king is only conditional. These circum-

stances seem to separate the Scandinavian peninsula from the European system of politics, with which, however, it is closely connected. To the discrepancy of domestic and foreign relations is added an incessant struggle with the climate and soil, with obstructions in trade, depreciated paper money, and an oppressive public debt. Charles XIV. is a sovereign suited to the country and the age. Looking steadily to the future, he meets present difficulties with firmness and wisdom. He possesses the affections of the majority of the nation, and especially of the army; and has imbued his successor with his own principles. The crown-prince, Oscar, lives and thinks, as a Swede. He met with a distinguished reception, at Verona, at the time of the Congress, in 1822, where the visits of the two emperors seemed to confirm the opinion that his succession to the throne was guaranteed by Russia. Soon afterwards, the marriage of the prince with Josepha Maximiliana, daughter of Eugene Beauharnois, duke of Leuchtenberg (whose wife was Augusta Amelia, princess of Bavaria), took place at Stockholm, June 18,1823.

Some intrigues and conspiracies for the restoration of the family of Vasa occurred in Sweden; but the estates took the opportunity to give the king and the crown-prince the strongest assurances of fidelity. The king and the Swedish estates, in order to interrupt all communication with the exiled family, determined to transfer to it all its property remaining in the kingdom, and to extinguish its pension by the payment of a certain sum, mutually agreed upon by the two parties, which was done in 1824. The personal character and constitutional principles of the king have secured him the love and fidelity of his subjects. He often visits the remote provinces of his two kingdoms, relieving distress wherever he finds it, usually from his private purse, and takes no important measures without being assured of the concurrence of the estates, which meet every six years, and of the majority of the nation.

The nobility of Sweden are subdivided into three classes—the lords, including counts and barons; the knights, or those whose ancestors have held the place of royal councillors; and the simple noblemen. The clergy are represented by the bishop of each diocese, and the citizens and peasants, the latter comprising only the free peasants of the crown, by deputies. The sovereign disposes of the higher civil and military offices, from which foreigners are excluded by law. Without the consent of the states, the king cannot enact new laws or abolish old ones; and the constitution requires the king to assemble the states once in five years. The legislative power in Norway is lodged in the "storthing," which meets every three years. A viceroy, or governor-general, resides at Christiana. The revenue and troops of the kingdoms are kept distinct; and the fortifications of Norway are only in part occupied by Sweden. For the levying of taxes the consent of the states is necessary; and all the troops and officers are required to take the oath of allegiance to them as well as to the king. The sovereign has the right to make war and peace, to regulate the judiciary, and to conduct the general administration without restraint. The succession to the throne is hereditary in the male line, according to the law of primogeniture; on the extinction of the male line the states have full power to elect a king. Before his coronation, the king is required to take the inaugural oaths, and to subscribe an engagement to maintain inviolate the evangelical Lutheran religion. A Swede who abandons the Lutheran religion loses his civil rights.

DENMARK.

The aborigines of Denmark are supposed to have come from Germany, and to have gained their support from the sea. The Cimbri, who derived

their origin from them, dwelt in the peninsula of Jutland, the Chersonesus Cimbrica of the Romans. They first struck terror into the Romans by their incursion, with the Teutones, into the rich provinces of Gaul. After this, led by the mysterious Odin, the Goths broke into Scandinavia, and appointed chiefs from their own nation over Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. But the early history of this country is involved in fable, and presents nothing that is interesting to a stranger. All that is known with certainty is, that at the period of which we are speaking, Denmark was divided into many small states, that the inhabitants gained their subsistence by piracy, and spread terror through every sea, and along every coast, wherever they came.

In the eighth century the Danes became formidable to their neighbours by their piratical depredations on the coasts of England, Flanders, Normandy, and Germany; which desultory warfare was maintained for more than two centuries, till at length their rude and savage manners being somewhat meliorated, they became cultivators of their native soil, instead of adventurers at sea. Other causes likewise concurred to put an end to these outrages; that redundant population, which had been the means of pouring forth such swarms of plunderers, no longer continued; many had fallen by the sword in those invasions; conquests had been made, and emigrants had settled on the acquired territories in vast numbers; the introduction of Christianity, in the tenth century, served likewise to abate their ferocity, while the increased strength of the neighbouring states, and the force they had acquired at sea, became too formidable to contend with.

Canute, or Knute, commonly called the Great, who died in England, in the year 1036, advanced the dignity of this kingdom to its highest pitch; but the sovereigns who succeeded him were little distinguished until towards the close of the fourteenth century; when Margaret obtained the regal power on the death of her son Olaus, or Orlaf III, who had united the kingdom of Norway to that of Denmark. In the year 1388 (three years after her accession), having defeated and taken prisoner Albert, king of Sweden, she was enabled to urge her pretensions to that crown; of which she obtained possession by the consent of the states, at the assembly of the representatives of the three kingdoms held at Calmar, in the year 1397, at which time a confederated constitution was formed of the greatest consequence to the northern states, and called "the union of Calmar." This wise and heroic princess, to whom historians have given the distinguishing appellation of "the Semiramis of the north," reigned over Denmark and Norway twenty-six, and over Sweden sixteen years. After this a century elapsed without anything highly important occurring in the history of this country.

Christian I., count of Oldenburg, who came to the throne in 1448, was the founder of the Danish royal family, which has ever since kept possession of the throne, and from which, in modern times, Russia, Sweden, and Oldenburg have received their rulers. He connected Norway, Sleswick, and Holstein with the crown of Denmark, but was so fettered by his capitulations, that he seemed to be rather the head of a royal council than a sovereign king. In the year 1523, Frederic, duke of Holstein, was raised to the throne by the voice of the people, who had deposed their king Christian II. for his cruelty and tyranny, in whose reign the crown of Sweden had been dismembered from that of Denmark, and placed on the patriotic brow of Gustavus Vasa. Frederic I. having embraced the doctrines of Luther, the tenets of that reformer spread with great rapidity through the kingdom.

The event which chiefly distinguishes the history of this kingdom since the reign of Frederic I. is the unprecedented revolution which took place in the seventeenth century, and which merits particular notice here.

Denmark was then governed by a king chosen by a delegation from people of all ranks, assembled in a diet, who in their choice paid a due regard to the family of thepreceding prince; and if they found one of his line properly qualified to discharge the duties of that high station, they thought it just to prefer him before any other, and the eldest son before a younger, if his merits warranted the adoption; but if those of the royal family were either deficient in abilities, or had rendered themselves unworthy by their vices, they chose some other person, and sometimes raised a private man to that dignity. To the king thus elected, and a senate consisting of the principal nobility, the executive powers of the government were entrusted.

One of the most fundamental parts of the constitution was the frequent meetings of the states, in order to regulate everything relating to the government. In these meetings new laws were enacted, and all affairs relating to peace or war, the disposal of great offices, and contracts of marriage for the royal family, were debated. The imposing of taxes was merely accidental, no money being levied on the people, except to maintain what was esteemed a necessary war, with the advice and consent of the nation, or now and then by way of free gift, to add to a daughter's portion. The king's ordinary revenue consisted only in the rents of lands and demesnes, in his herds of cattle, his forests, services of tenants in cultivating his ground &c., for customs on merchandise were not then known in that part of the world; so that he lived like a modern nobleman, upon the revenues of his estate. But in the year 1660, the three states, consisting of the nobility, clergy, and commonalty, being assembled in a diet, for the purpose of finding means for discharging the debts incurred by a war with Charles X., king of Sweden, the nobility endeavoured to lay the whole burden on the commons; while the latter, who had defended their country, and particularly their capital, with the utmost bravery, insisted that the nobles, who enjoyed all the lands, should at least pay their share of the taxes, since they had suffered less in the common calamity, and done less to prevent its progress. At this the nobility were enraged, and many bitter replies passed on both sides. At length a principal senator standing up, told the president of the city, that the commons neither understood the privileges of the nobility, nor considered that they themselves were not better than slaves. The word slaves was followed by a loud murmur from the clergy and burghers; when Nanson, the president of the city of Copenhagen and speaker of the house of commons, observing the general indignation it occasioned, instantly arose, and swearing that the commons were not slaves, which the nobility should find to their cost, walked out, and was followed by the clergy and burghers, who proceeding to the brewers'-hall, in the city, debated there on the most effectual means of humbling the arrogance of the nobility. Then it was that the first idea of rendering the crown of Denmark hereditary was started by the bishop of Zealand, but nothing like investing the king with absolute power was at that time thought of, although it was soon after adopted. The assembly afterwards adjourned to the bishop's palace, where the plan of hereditary succession received the unanimous concurrence of the whole assembly.

Frederic III., who then possessed the crown of Denmark, has been represented as a prince naturally supine and unambitious, of engaging manners and a benevolent heart, yet his habits of life were as little likely to render him highly popular as generally odious; but what the common course of events would not have brought about, the exigencies of the times effected. Charles X. of Sweden, having broken the treaty he entered into at Roskild, in the year 1658, and invaded Denmark, for the avowed purpose of subduing both that kingdom and Norway, to annex them to the crown of Sweden, Frederic beheld the impending storm with the firmness of a king; he renounced his beloved ease, led on his troops

in person, and, by his activity, conduct, and bravery, delivered his capital, repelled the invaders, and forced them disgracefully to evacuate his territories. These achievements deservedly endeared him to the people, and before the fervour of their gratitude had subsided, the dissensions between the nobles and the commons broke forth. Had the smallest spark of ambition existed in the king's breast, such an event would have kindled in into a flame; but this prince is represented, by some historians who have related this memorable revolution, as having relapsed into his former habits of inactivity, and that the intrigues of two principal men in his court brought about an event which he himself shewed no solicitude to procure.

The commons and clergy the next morning repaired in great order to the council-house, where the nobles were assembled; and there the president Nanson, in a short speech, observed, that they had considered the state of the nation, and found that the only way to remedy the disorders of the state was to add to the power of the king, and render his crown hereditary: in which, if the nobles thought fit to concur, they were ready to accompany them to his majesty, whom they had informed of their resolution, and who expected them in the hall of his palace. The nobles, filled with a general consternation at the suddenness of this proposal, and at the resolution with which it was made, now endeavoured to soothe the commons by fair speeches; and urged, that so important an affair should be managed with due solemnity, and regulated in such a manner as not to have the appearance of precipitation or tumult. To this the president replied, that it was evident the nobles only aimed at gaining time, in order to frustrate the intentions of the commons, who came not thither to consult, but to act. After farther debate, the commons growing impatient, the clergy with the bishops at their head, and the burghers, headed by the president, proceeded without the nobles, to the palace, and were met by the prime minister, who conducted them to the hall of audience, whither the king soon came to them. The bishop of Zealand made a long speech in praise of their sovereign, and concluded with offering him an hereditary and absolute dominion. The king returned them thanks; but observed that the concurrence of the nobles was necessary: he assured them of his protection, and promised to ease their grievances.

The nobles, divided among themselves, but abhorring the measure which they were required to sanction, prepared to quit the capital, and several had actually withdrawn. As such a secession would have dissolved the diet, and nullified the whole proceedings, orders were issued in the king's name, for the gate to be shut, which procured an immediate and explicit acquiescence. On the 16th of October, the estates absolved the king of all obligations he had entered into on receiving the crown; and, two days after, scaffolds covered with tapestry were erected in the square before the castle, when orders were given for the burghers and soldiers to appear in arms, under their respective officers. In the morning, the king and queen, being seated in chairs of state under velvet canopies, received publicly the homage of all the senators, nobility, clergy, and commons; which were performed on the knee, each taking an oath to promote the interest of the sovereign in all things, and to serve him faithfully as became hereditary subjects. Gersdorf, a principal senator, was the only person who had the courage to open his lips in behalf of their expiring liberties, He hoped and trusted, he said, that his majesty designed nothing but the good of his people, and not to govern them after the Turkish manner; but wished his successors would follow the example his majesty would undoubtedly set them, and make use of this unlimited power for the good, and not for the prejudice, of his subjects. Those who had paid their homage then retired to the council-house, where the

nobility were called over by name, and ordered to subscribe the oath they had taken, which they instantly obeyed. Thus, in the space of four days, the kingdom of Denmark was changed from a state but little different from an aristocracy, to that of an unlimited monarchy. We here see a house of commons stimulated by resentment, and filled with indignation at the insolence of the nobility, betraying their constituents, and, instead of a noble effort to oblige those nobles to allow them those privileges they had a right to demand, voluntarily giving up for themselves, their constituents, and their posterity, what they ought to have struggled to preserve at the hazard of their lives; while the only comfort the people had left, was, in being freed from the tyranny of their former oppressors, and seeing them as much humbled as themselves.

The revolution being thus accomplished, a new constitution was established, by an edict consisting of forty articles, and entitled "the royal law of Denmark," by which the succession was settled on the king's eldest son, and, on failure of male issue, in the female line. The kings of Denmark and Norway are therein declared to be above all human laws, acknowledging in all ecclesiastical and civil affairs no higher power than God alone. They may make, interpret, abrogate, and dispense with laws, except the royal law, which must remain irrevocable, and be considered as the fundamental law of the state. The kings of Denmark have likewise the power of declaring war, making peace, imposing taxes, and levying contributions of all kinds. The kings who have reigned since this revolution have been Christian V., (1070); Frederic IV., (1699); Christian VI., (1730); Frederic V., (1746); Christian VII., (1766); Frederic VI., (1808); and Christian VIII., (1840).

In 1792, when the allied powers wished Denmark to take part in the war against France, she maintained her neutrality. But in her accession to the northern confederacy in 1800, she was involved in a war with Great Britain, in which the Danish fleet was defeated at Copenhagen, April 2, 1801. The courage of the Danes very deservedly obtained for them a truce; upon which Denmark acceded to the treaty of Russia with England, evacuated Hamburg and Lubeck, of which she then had possession, and received back her own colonies. At length, in 1807, this state was included in Napoleon's continental policy. A French army stood on the borders of Denmark; Russia had adopted the continental system at the peace of Tilsit; and England thought it her duty to prevent the accession of Denmark to this alliance. To carry that object, an English fleet, conveying a large army, was sent up the Sound; and as the Danish government refused to join in a defensive alliance with Great Britain, as demanded, or to surrender the fleet as a pledge of its neutrality, the capital was bombarded for three days, and the whole fleet, consisting of eighteen ships of the line, fifteen frigates, &c., was delivered up to the British, and carried off. Great Britain now offered the crown-prince neutrality or an alliance. If he accepted the first, the Danish fleet was to be restored in three years after the general peace, and the island of Heligoland was to be ceded to the British crown. The crown-prince, however, rejected all proposals, declared war against Great Britain in October, 1807, and entered into a treaty with Napoleon.

This alliance with France was no sooner concluded than Bernadotte occupied the Danish islands with 30,000 men, in order to land in Sweden, against which power Denmark declared war in April, 1808; but this plan was defeated by the war with Austria, in 1809. The demand made by the court of Stockholm, in 1813, of a transfer of Norway to Sweden, was followed by a new war with this crown, and a new alliance with France. On this account, after the battle of Leipsic, the northern powers who were united against France, occupied Holstein and Slesure. Gluck-

stadt and other fortifications were captured, and the Danish troops driven beyond Flensburg.

The court of Denmark seeing the unfavorable position in which the country was placed by the declining fortunes of Napoleon, not only concluded a peace with England and Sweden, but entered into alliance against France, and contributed a body of troops to the allied forces. Denmark was also obliged to cede Heligoland to Great Britain (receiving in exchange several West India islands), and Norway to Sweden (for which she was compensated by Swedish Pomerania and Rugen, but which were afterwards exchanged for Lauenburg with Prussia). A peace was concluded with Russia in February, 1814.

NORWAY.

The observations that have been made respecting the early history of Sweden and Denmark apply also to Norway. Up to the ninth century it was governed by a number of petty princes; until one more bold and powerful than the rest, named Harold Harfaagre, who had renounced the idols of Scandinavian worship for the doctrines of Christianity, conquered them, and became sole and absolute monarch of the country.

Like the other christian princes of Europe, Harold Harfaagre was anxious to introduce the feudal system; and having wrested the various petty principalities from those who before possessed them, he reduced the people to a state of vassalage, and placed a governor over each province, to collect the revenues and hold courts of justice. But among so brave and stubborn a race as these Northmen, many there were who, rather than submit to Harold's despotism, emigrated to other countries, Ireland being among the number. They, however, chiefly settled in Iceland, an uninhabited and uninviting spot, yet in time it became not only very populous, but was the favourite resort of their scalds, or poets, and their historians, whom they treated with every mark of honourable regard.

Norway having become a regular and independent kingdom under Harold Harfaagre, during a reign which lasted more than half a century, many customs were introduced which tended to raise the characters of Norwegians as a nation desirous of cultivating the arts of civilized life, but which still would not abate one iota of its warlike pretensions. He had bestowed fiefs on many of the nobles, amongst whom Rognvald, father of the famous Rollo, duke of Normandy; so that, in fact, it may be said that the usurpation of Harold in Norway led to the settlement of the Normans in France. Harold died in 934, and was succeeded by his son Eric, who proving a tyrant, some of the principal chiefs made propositions to his brother Haco, who had been educated in England, and was then residing at the court of the king of Athelstan. He accordingly went over to Norway, and having pledged himself to abolish the feudal laws, and restore the allodial tenure, he was proclaimed king. Eric seeing that there was no chance of recovering the throne, collected a fleet, and sailed to the Orkney islands, from which point he could readily assail the coasts of Scotland and Northumbria.

In 1028, Canute the Great, king of Denmark, conquered Norway, but did not long retain possession of it, and the country had its own monarchs again from 1034 to 1380. On the death of Olaf IV., his mother, Margaret, daughter of Waldemar III., king of Denmark, inherited both thrones; from which time Denmark and Norway remained united, till 1814, when its cession to Sweden took place.

THE HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

The original inhabitants of this gigantic empire (which embraces nearly half of Europe, and the whole of Northern Asia—reaching from the frontiers of China to the confines of Poland, Sweden, and Turkey—besides having vast possessions on the north-western coast of North America) were doubtless a multitude of nomadic tribes, classed under the common appellation of Sarmatians and Scythians. These northern hordes at a very early period began to menace the Roman frontiers, and, even before the time of Cyrus, had invaded what was then called the civilized world, particularly Southern Asia. They inhabited the countries described by Herodotus between the Don and Dnieper; and Strabo and Tacitus mention the Roxolani, afterward called Ros, as highly distinguished among the Sarmatian tribes, dwelling in that district. The Greeks early established colonies here; and in the second century the Goths came from the Baltic, and, locating in the neighbourhood of the Don, extended themselves to the Danube.

In the fifth century, the country in the neighbourhood of these rivers, was overrun by numerous migratory hordes of Alans, Huns, Avarians, and Bulgarians, who were followed by the Slavi, or Sclavonians, a Sarmatian people, who took a more northerly direction than their predecessors had done. In the next century, the Khozari, pressed upon by the Avarians, entered the country between the Wolga and the Don, conquered the Crimea, and thus placed themselves in connection with the Byzantine empire. These and numerous other tribes, directed the course of their migrations toward the west, forced the Huns into Pannonia, and occupied the country between the Don and the Alanta; while the Tchoudes, or Ishudi, a tribe of the Fiunic race, inhabited the northern parts of Russia. All these tribes maintained themselves by pasture and the chase, and exhibited the usual barbarism of wandering nomades.

The Sclavonians, coming from the northern Danube, and spreading themselves along the Dnieper, in the fifth and sixth centuries, early acquired, from a commerce with their southern neighbours, habits of civilized life, and embraced the Christian religion. They founded, in the country afterward called Russia, the two cities of Novogorod and Kiof, which early attained a commercial importance. Their wealth, however, soon excited the avidity of the Knohozari, with whom they were compelled to maintain a perpetual struggle; but Novogorod found another and more formidable enemy in the Varangians, a race of bold pirates, who infested the coasts of the Baltic, and who had previously subdued the Courlanders, Livonians, and Esthonians. To these bold invaders the name of Russes, or Russians, is thought, by the most eminent authors, to owe its origin. Be that, however, as it may, it appears certain that, in these dark ages, the country was divided among a great number of petty princes, who made war upon each other with great ferocity, so that the people were reduced to the utmost misery; and the Sclavonians, seeing that the warlike rovers threatened their rising state with devastation, were prompted, by the necessity of self-preservation, to offer the government of their country to them. In consequence of this, a celebrated Varangian chief, named Ruric, arrived, in 862, with a body of his countrymen, in the neighbourhood of the lake Cadoga, and laid the foundation of the present empire of China, by uniting his people with those who already occupied the soil. Ruric has the credit of being zealous for the strict administra-

tion of justice, and enforcing its exercise on all the boyars who possessed territories under him. He died in 879, and was succeeded by his son Ighor, who conquered Kiof, and removed the seat of government from Novogorod to that place. Ighor's widow and successor, Olga, publicly embraced Christianity at Constantinople in 955, and attempted, but without success, to introduce the Greek ritual among the people. Her son, Sviatoslaf, after conquering Bulgaria, and even threatening Constantinople itself, fell in battle against the Pesshenegri, near the cascades of the Dnieper, in 972.

The Russian empire continued to flourish till the end of the reign of Vladimir (or Wolodomir) who ascended the throne in 976. Having settled the affairs of his empire, he demanded in marriage the princess Anne, sister of the Greek emperor Basilius Porphyrogenitus. His suit was granted, on condition that he should embrace Christianity. With this the Russian monarch complied; and that vast empire was thenceforward considered as belonging to the patriarchate of Constantinople. Vladimir received the name of Basilius on the day he was baptized; and according to the Russian annals, 20,000 of his subjects were baptized on the same day. The idols of paganism were now thrown down, churches and monasteries were erected, towns built, and the arts began to flourish. The Sclavonian letters were now first introduced into Russia; and Vladimir sent missionaries to convert the Bulgarians, but without much success. We are told that Vladimir called the arts from Greece, cultivated them in the peaceable periods of his reign, and generously rewarded their professors. His merits, indeed, appear to have been very considerable. He has been extolled by the monks as the wisest as well as the most religious of kings; his zealous exertions in promoting the profession of Christianity throughout his dominions acquired for him the title of saint; and succeeding historians, comparing the virtues of his character with the age in which he lived, have united in conferring upon him the appellation of Vladimir the Great. He died in 1008, and, contrary to all rules of sound policy, divided his empire among his twelve sons.

Vladimir was no sooner dead than his sons commenced a civil war. Swatopolk, one of the brothers, having destroyed two others, and seized their dominions, was in his turn hurled from his eminence by Jarislaus, another brother, who reigned from 1014 to 1045. But as the fugitive prince had found refuge at the court of Boleslaus, king of Poland, it brought on a dreadful war betwixt the Poles and Russians, in which the former were victorious. During the reign of Jarislaus, the progress of Christianity was considerably promoted by his exertions; and besides conferring many important privileges on the mercantile citizens of Novogorod, for whose use he also enacted a body of equitable laws, he built a number of towns throughout his dominions and encouraged learning as far as it could be attained under all the disadvantages attendant on its acquisition in that dark age. Jarislaus fell into the same error that his father had committed, by dividing his dominions among his five sons. This produced a repetition of the bloody scenes which had been acted by the sons of Vladimir: the Poles took advantage of the distracted state of affairs to make continual inroads and invasions; and the empire continued in the most deplorable situation till 1237, when it was totally subdued by the Tartars. Innumerable multitudes of these barbarians, headed by their khan, Batto, after ravaging great part of Poland and Silesia, broke suddenly into Russia, where they committed the greatest cruelties. At this time Vladimir II. was the grand duke, who, though he reached not the fame or authority of his ancestor, was acknowledged as czar by the Byzantine emperor, Alexis Comnenus, and was the first whose brow was graced with the imperial crown of Russia.

George Sevoloditz succeeded his father, and built Moscow in 1147; but

the ceaseless insurrections and calamities which had been weakening the strength of the Russian state since the death of Vladimir the Great, facilitated the enterprises of the Mongols; and after the death of George, who was killed in battle, the whole kingdom, with the exception of Novogorod, which preserved its independence by treaties, fell into the hands of the Mongols. Hitherto the Russian state had made comparatively little progress in civilization: a circumstance to be attributed to the variety of nations of which it was composed, and to the military constitution of the Varangians. Commerce remained chiefly in the hands of those German merchants who had followed the Christian missionaries who came into Russia after the commencement of the 13th century; and the principal seats of this commerce were the towns of Novogorod and Kiof. The traffic with the south was mostly under the management of the Greek merchants. From the time Christianity had been introduced, there had been monasteries in Russia; and in these establishments the scanty literature of the age was preserved.

Though reduced to the most degrading servitude by their Asiatic conquerors, the Russians successfully resisted the attempts of new enemies, which appeared in the Livonians, the Teutonic knights, and the Swedes. Jarislaus conquered Finland, but perished by poison among the Tartars. His son Alexander defeated the Danes and Swedes in 1241, in a great battle upon the Neva, and received for this action the appellation of Alexander Nevsky. His youngest son Daniel mounted the throne in 1247. He removed his residence to Moscow, and in 1296 assumed the title of grand duke of Moscow. This prince founded the celebrated palace of the Kremlin in that city, in 1300. Daniel was succeeded by his son George, who successfully resisted the Swedes, and built the town of Orshek, now Schlussenburg.

During several succeeding reigns the Russians had to contend, first, with the Tartars, and subsequently with the Livonians and Poles; the miseries of a foreign yoke being also aggravated by all the calamities of intestine discord. The Livonians took Plescow; and the Poles made themselves masters of Black Russia, the Ukraine, Podolia, and the city of Kiof. Casimir the Great, one of their kings, carried his conquests still farther. He claimed a part of Russia, in right of his relation to Boleslaus, duke of Halitz, who took the duchies of Perzemyslia, Halitz, and Luckow, and the districts of Sanock, Lubackzow, and Trebowla: all which countries he made a province of Poland.

The newly-conquered Russians were ill disposed to brook the government of the Poles, whose laws and customs were more contrary to their own than those of the Tartars had been. They joined the latter to rid themselves of the yoke, and assembled an army numerous enough to overwhelm all Poland, but destitute of valour and discipline. Casimir, undaunted by this deluge of barbarians, presented himself at the head of a few troops on the borders of the Vistula, and obliged his enemies to retire. Demetrius, who commanded in Moscow, made frequent efforts to rid himself of the galling yoke. He defeated, in several battles, Maymay, khan of the Tartars; and, when conqueror, refused to pay them any tribute, and assumed the title of Grand Duke of Muscovy. But the oppressors of the north appeared in greater numbers than before; and Demetrius, at length overpowered, after a struggle of three years, perished with his whole army, amounting to 240,000 men.

Basilius (or Basilowitz) the son of Demetrius, revenged his father's death. He attacked his enemies, drove them out of his dominions, and conquered Bulgaria. He made an alliance with the Poles, whom he could not subdue; and even ceded to them a part of his country, on condition that they should help him to defend the rest against any new incursions of the Tartars. But this treaty was a weak barrier against ambi-

tion. The Russians found new enemies in their allies, and the Tartars soon returned. Basilius had a son of the same name, to whom the crown ought to have descended; but the father, suspecting his legitimacy, left it to his own brother, Gregory, a man of severe and tyrannical disposition, and therefore hated by the people, who asserted the son's right, and proclaimed him their sovereign. The Tartars took cognizance of the dispute, and determined it in favour of Basilius; upon which Gregory had recourse to arms, drove his nephew from Moscow to the principality of Uglitz, and usurped the throne. Upon the death of Gregory, Basilius returned to Moscow; but Andrew and Demetrius, sons of the late usurper, laid siege to that city, and obliged him to retire to the monastery of Troitz, where they took him prisoner, with his wife and son, and put out his eyes. The subjects of the unfortunate prince, incensed at the cruel treatment he received, forced the perpetrators to fly to Novogorod, and reinstated their lawful sovereign at Moscow, where he died. In the midst of this general confusion, John I., the son of Basilius (or, as he is called in the Russian tongue, Ivan Basilowitz) by his invincible spirit and refined policy, became both the conqueror and deliverer of his country, and laid the first foundation of its future grandeur. In this period the Cossacks arose. The Poles and Lithuanians had conquered the whole of the Western Russia to Kiof, and subjected the vanquished people to religious persecution, as well as political oppression; and on the east, the Tartars of the Crimea endeavoured to subdue the Russians. The discontented, therefore, retired into the fertile but uninhabited Ukraine, and adopted a military organization, under the control of a superior officer styled a *hetman*.

In the promotion of civilization, Ivan II. surpassed all his predecessors. German artists and learned men were welcomed and liberally rewarded by the czar; printing offices were established, and commerce was promoted by a treaty with Elizabeth of England in 1553. He established a standing army; conquered Kasan in 1552, the kingdom of Astracan in 1554, and endeavoured to drive the Teutonic Knights from Livonia; but Denmark, Poland, and Sweden attacked him, and a conspiracy in the interior broke out. In this embarrassment he implored the emperor Rodolph II. and pope Gregory XIII. to interfere; and the nuncio of the latter brought about the peace of Zapolia between Ivan II. and Stephen Bathory, king of Poland, in 1582, by which Livonia was ceded to Poland. Ivan died in 1584.

Toward the end of Ivan's reign, Yermack, a Cossack, discovered Siberia. Feodor, his successor, conquered Siberia entirely in 1587, and surrendered Ethonia to Sweden in 1595. Feodor, the last of Ruric's decendants, died in 1598; and Russia was shaken by internal convulsions and external wars, which greatly retarded her progress in civilization. The war of the Polish party with the party of the pseudo-Demetrius was not ended until Michael Fedorowitz (of the family of Romanoff) ascended the throne in 1613; after which a treaty of peace was concluded with Sweden and Poland. The young Michael was proclaimed, and signed a compact with his new subjects, by which he promised to protect the established religion; to make no new laws, nor change the old; not to raise imposts; and to make neither war nor peace, without the consent of the senate. The Russians, or rather the senators, seized this opportunity to have a part of the government. Michael remained faithful to his promise, and died in 1654, leaving his throne to his son Alexis. So long as the Swedes maintained the ascendency over the Russians, their principal view was directed to exclude that power from the possession of any port on the Baltic; being well aware that the natural advantages which their rival possessed, would, whenever that powerful empire should avail itself of them, raise the commercial consequence of Russia on the ruin of that of Sweden.

Alexis, the father of his country, was only sixteen years of age at his accession to the throne. The despotism and insolence of his ministers drew upon him the hatred of the people during his minority; but when he took upon himself the government, he was both loved and respected. He encouraged an intercourse with foreign nations, and induced instructive and laborious strangers to people his desert provinces; and Russia, under him, began to be known to the principal powers of Europe and Asia. Ambassadors from China and Persia visited Moscow; and Alexis sent, for the first time, his ambassadors to France and Spain. More generous, or less politic, than the other monarchs, he refused to receive the ambassador of Cromwell, declaring that he never would acknowledge the pretended protector of England. He died in 1676.

Manufactures, arts, and military discipline were introduced in this active reign; and although an unsuccessful war was waged with Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, yet the boundaries of the empire were extended. Theodore, or Feodor, his son, succeeded, on the death of his father, in 1677; and after a beneficial reign, which continued seven years, on his death-bed he nominated his half-brother Peter, to the exclusion of his elder brother Ivan, or John, whose imbecile mind disqualified him for the arduous task of government. Notwithstanding this, the intrigues of their sister Sophia, a restless and ambitious woman, stirred up civil commotions, which only subsided on the death of John, in 1696, when Peter became sole sovereign of all the Russias.

The private character of the czar was by no means so irreproachable as to lead his subjects to form any exalted notions of his future course; but, in spite of all disadvantages, he applied himself to the moral and political regeneration of his country. During the administration of the princess Sophia he had formed a design of establishing a maritime power in Russia; and at the very commencement of his reign he defeated the Turks, from whom he wrested the port of Azof, which opened to his subjects the commerce of the Black Sea. The first object of his ambition being thus attained, he resolved to carry out his design of making Russia the centre of trade between Europe and Asia—to connect the Volga, the Dwina, and the Don, by canals, thus opening a water communication between the northern seas and the Black and the Caspian seas. To complete this magnificent plan, he determined to build a city on the Baltic sea, which should be the emporium of northern commerce and the capital of his dominions. He did not, however, rely simply on this stupendous undertaking for carrying out his maritime and commercial plans. He felt that it was necessary for some of the young nobility to travel into foreign countries for improvement, not according to our notions of foreign travel, but for the express purpose of learning whatever was likely to be most useful to the country of their birth, either in cultivating the arts of peace, or in maintaining the discipline of war. He accordingly sent 60 young Russians into Italy; most of them into Venice, and the rest to Leghorn, in order to learn the art of constructing their galleys. Forty more were sent out by his direction into Holland, with the intention of instructing themselves in the art of building and working large ships; some were sent to Germany, to serve in the land-forces, and to learn the military discipline of that nation; while others were elsewhere dispatched in pursuit of whatever knowledge was likely to be rendered advantageous at home.

Nor did the patriotic emperor stop even there. Having established a regency to direct the government during his absence, he himself left his dominions, and traveled *incognito* through various European states. Having arrived at Amsterdam, he inscribed his name as Peter Michaeloff in the list of carpenters of the Indian Company. Here he performed all the duties of his station; and at the intervals from labour, studied mathema-

tics, fortification, navigation, and drawing plans. From Holland he came to England, where he completed his studies of ship-building, and examined the principal navy arsenals. King William permitted him to engage several ingenious English artificers, and he returned, by way of Holland and Germany, to Moscow, after an absence of nearly two years; having acquired a fund of knowledge which afterward so much contributed to his country's glory. He had no sooner arrived than he was followed by crowds of every species of artizans, to whom he held out the greatest encouragement; and for the first time was seen large Russian vessels on the Baltic, on the Black Sea, and on the ocean. Architectural building began to rise among the Russian huts; colleges, academies, printing-houses, and libraries, sprung up under his fostering hand. The habits and customs changed by degrees, although with difficulty, and the Muscovites began to know something of civil society. At the same time commerce had its birth in Russia. Laws, military and marine discipline, and manufactures, the sciences and fine arts, and all that appeared to him desirable in nature, were introduced. [The leading events of his war with Charles XII. being related in the history of Sweden, are here omitted.] Peter died, regretted by his subjects, in 1725; and was succeeded by his wife, the empress Catherine I., who supported the splendour of the empire, and held the sovereignty of Russia with a firm rule till her death, which happened two years after her elevation.

Peter II., grandson of Peter the Great, being only twelve years of age, then became czar. The reigns of government, during his minority, were held by prince Menzikoff, whom the first Peter had advanced to the highest offices in the state, and who was no less the favourite of the czarina, Catherine. The young czar dying in 1730, Anne, duchess of Courland, niece to Peter the Great, and daughter of Ivan, ascended the throne, which she filled ten years. This empress rendered herself memorable by the decisive turn she gave to the contests which arose in Europe; she assisted the emperor Charles VI., frustrated the schemes of the French ministry for placing Stanislaus on the throne of Poland, and actually procured the crown for his competitor Augustus, at the same time that she triumphed over the Turks and Tartars, the natural competitors with Russia.

Ivan, or John III., great-nephew to Anne, became her successor, when only two years of age. He was son of the princess Anne, of Mecklenburg, the daughter of her eldest sister, who had married prince Anthony Ulric of Brunswick Beveren. This infant was deposed by the general concurrence of all ranks in the empire, and the princess Elizabeth Petrowna, daughter of Peter the Great, by the empress Catherine, was raised to the imperial dignity in December, 1741. Her reign, which continued twenty years, was prosperous. In the war which broke out on the continent in 1756, she took a decided part in favour of the house of Austria; and was on the point of crushing the Prussian monarch, and possessing herself of his most valuable territories, when death suddenly closed her career, in 1762.

Her nephew, Charles Peter Ulric, duke of Holstein, grand duke of Russia, now became czar, by the title of Peter III. The friendship which this prince bore to the king of Prussia saved that hero from his impending fate, and converted a formidable enemy into a beneficial auxiliary. An intemperate zeal, which led Peter to attempt cutting off the venerable beards of his clergy, and to abolish some established and favourite military fashions, joined to an unbounded fondness for a mistress, and a strong antipathy to his wife and son, terminated his reign in a few months. He was seized and deposed, and his wife raised to the imperial dignity, by the title of Catherine II., in July, 1762. The captive prince was soon after cruelly deprived of life. Some letters written by the king of Prussia to

this weak prince, found after his decease, which strongly recommended to him a change of conduct, and particularly pleaded in behalf of his repudiated consort, fixed that princess in the interests of Frederic. Catherine II. was notoriously licentious, yet her reign may be regarded as one of the most prosperous in the annals of Russia. As soon as she had relieved the country from an exhausting war, she invited artizans and workmen of all kinds to settle in her empire, and collected around her distinguished foreigners to assist her plans in the improvement of the laws, and to infuse a healthy vigour into the commerce of Russia. She was victorious by land and sea against the Porte, with whom she concluded a peace in 1774, whereby Russia gained a considerable accession of territory.

In 1776, Catherine divided her empire into separate governments. In 1780, she instituted the armed neutrality between Russia, the emperor of Germany, Prussia, and Portugal, against the naval power of the English: and, three years afterward, she planned the expulsion of the Turks from Europe, and the re-establishment of the Byzantine empire: but some political considerations caused the execution of this project to be abandoned at the time, and when it was resumed, ten years later, it by no means succeeded to the extent that had been anticipated. At the conclusion of the Turkish war in 1792, the Dniester became the frontier of Russia toward Moldavia and Bessarabia; and as the war with Sweden was now converted into an alliance with that power, the ambitious empress again turned her eyes upon Poland, whither her army marched with the certainty of conquest; and on the occasion of the second partition, in 1793, a territory of 86,000 square miles was added to the Russian empire. On the remaining part of Poland she imposed the most oppressive restrictions, which produced a formidable rebellion in 1794. The gallant Kosciusko strove hard to effect the independence of his country, but he was overwhelmed by numbers, and taken prisoner, while Suwarrof stormed and devastated, with more than barbarian fury, the suburbs of Warsaw. The dissolution of the kingdom was now at hand; and in the third partition of Poland, in 1795, Russia extended her power toward the west as far as the Vistula. It now extended itself from the shores of the Baltic to the western end of North America and the Japan Islands. Yet, in the midst of her military operations, she protected and encouraged the arts and sciences, and gave a new code of laws to the subjects of her vast empire. She died November 17, 1796, and was succeeded by her son, Paul I., who, capricious as he was, began his reign by a noble act of justice, namely, the liberation of Kosciusko.

The late empress had engaged early in the confederacy against France; but, from some unexplained cause, did not come into action against that power. The emperor Paul likewise remained almost in a neutral state, until the beginning of the year 1799, when he sent a powerful army to the assistance of the allies into Italy, under the command of Suwarrof, a general well known before by his conquests and cruelties in Poland. The successes of this man were extraordinary during several months after his arrival in Italy; but toward the end of the campaign, his good fortune seemed to desert him, and it was not without great difficulty and loss that he reached Germany across the Grisons country, harassed by the French armies under Moreau and Massena. The ill success of the Russian arms against the French, augmented by the bad understanding which subsisted between his generals and those of Austria, appeared to have an extraordinary effect on the mind of the emperor Paul, who, from having been the uncompromising enemy of Bonaparte, now entered into amicable correspondence with him, and became one of his most ardent admirers. He laid an embargo on all the English vessels in his ports, and induced Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia to join him in the northern armed confederacy. But on the night of the 23rd of March, 1801, just at the time

the British fleet was sailing through the Sound to the attack on Copenhagen, Paul was assassinated by some of the Russian nobility, whom he had treated with harshness and contumely. How far his sons were cognizant of what was going on it is impossible to tell; but it was generally believed that they were in the secret, and connived at it from a conviction that their father intended to immure them in a fortress. And such an event was very probable, for there is little doubt of his having been insane at the time.

On Alexander, the late emperor's eldest son, succeeding to the throne, a degree of energy and consistency was soon seen in every department of the government; and, separating himself from the northern league, he concluded a treaty with Great Britain (June 7, 1801) and at the same time renounced the grand-mastership of Malta, which had been conferred on his father. In June, 1802, he appeared, for the first time, among the potentates of Europe, and had an interview with the king of Prussia at Memel. France, under the guidance of Napoleon, was at this period making rapid conquests in the south of Europe; Bonaparte having been, in the preceding month, crowned king of Italy at Milan; shortly after which he annexed Genoa to France. But the cabinet of St. Petersburgh seems wisely to have thought that its distance from the scene of action might well excuse the emperor from any active interference with the belligerent states. He, however, confirmed the incorporation of the government of Georgia with the Russian empire; concluded treaties of peace with France and Spain; and offered, in 1803, to interpose his good offices in restoring the newly-ruptured peace between England and France and Spain. But after the execution of the duke D'Enghein all intercourse between Russia and France ceased; and in April, 1805, Alexander joined the third coalition against France; but the loss of the battle of Austerlitz clouded the prospects of the allies, and the Russian emperor returned to Petersburgh. The battle of Eylau was fought on the 8th of February, 1807; that of Friedland, on the 4th of June following; the Russians then retired, and after an interview between the two emperors, which took place on the river Niemen, in a handsome pavilion erected on a raft for the occasion, peace was concluded on the 8th of July, 1807. At this memorable interview the outward forms of friendship were displayed between these rival monarchs, and an abundance of courtly dissimulation used to testify the sincerity of their professions. Alexander, by this compact, acknowledged the brothers of Bonaparte as kings respectively of Naples, Holland, and Westphalia; he formally recognized also the confederation of the Rhine, and promised to acknowledge all the sovereigns who might hereafter become members of the confederation. He engaged that hostilities, on the part of Russia, should instantly cease with the Ottoman Porte. He undertook, also, to mediate for a peace between England and France; and if he should prove unsuccessful, he was to close the ports of Russia against all British ships; which, in fact, was soon after done. In 1808, Alexander had an interview with Napoleon, at Erfurth, and afterward took part, as the ally of France, in the war with Austria; but his want of zeal in the cause was too evident to escape the penetration of the French emperor, and a growing coldness between the imperial allies began to appear.

Great injury had been done to Russian commerce, and heavy complaints made by merchants in consequence of their ports having been shut against the English; they were, therefore, again opened to them, provided they hoisted American colours, while French goods were very strictly prohibited. This induced Napoleon to make himself master of the principal northern ports of Germany, and to incorporate the possessions of the duke of Oldenburg, a near relation of Alexander, with France. Against this proceeding Russia made a very energetic protest; and, as early as 1811,

five Russian divisions assumed a position opposite Warsaw. On the other hand, Napoleon caused the fortresses on the Vistula and Oder to be declared in a state of seige, sent thither large masses of troops, and occupied Swedish Pomerania, because Charles XIII., of Sweden, declined a closer connection with France. The contest in Spain was at this time daily growing more obstinate, and the large amount of men and money it consumed might well have appeared to Napoleon a sufficient obstacle to a struggle with Russia; but he calculated that his army, amounting to nearly a million of effective men, would be sufficient for the conflict in both quarters; and he also relied upon a great mass of auxiliary forces, chiefly promised by the confederation of the Rhine; besides his alliance with Prussia and Austria, which covered him on both flanks, and secured his retreat. He, however, made peaceable offers through the count de Narbonne, his ambassador; but the object of his mission being unattained, half a million of soldiers, consisting of French, Germans, Italians, Poles, Swiss, Spaniards, and Portuguese, with more than twelve hundred cannon, were put in motion, about the end of July, to attack the Russians on the other side of the Niemen and the Vistula. The Russians, in three divisions, occupied a line including Kiof and Smolensko to Riga. The first western army, of 127,000 men, in Lithuania and Courland, was commanded by Barclay de Tolly, who had till then been minister of war; the other western army, of 48,000 men, was commanded by prince Bagration. A third body of forces, led by General Doctoroff, served to keep up the communication between the other two.

All the disposable property and records had long before been generally conveyed into the interior. The first western Russian army was stationed along the Niemen as far as Grodno, and comprised six corps of infantry and two of cavalry. The second western army was in the vicinity of Honim, consisting of four battalions of infantry and one of cavalry. The communication was kept between them by the hetman Platoff, with ten thousand Cossacks, at Bialystock. The army of Volhynia, under Tormasoff, at Lutzk, was composed of two divisions of infantry and one of cavalry, containing together about twenty thousand men; and there were other corps stationed elsewhere, amounting to about forty thousand men more. The Russian plan of the campaign was—by retreating, to avoid a decisive battle, until the enemy should be remote from all his resources, and weakened by marches through a desolate region, and the Russian army should be so considerably strengthened by the accession of all the forces that might be, meanwhile, raised, as to have a decided superiority. Napoleon's scheme, on the contrary, was—to use every effort to compel the Russians to battle, to destroy them after the defeat, and, pressing forward with haste to the capital, to proffer peace. But he not only entirely mistook the character of his enemy, but he overlooked the important fact that, though the Russians might retreat, they would still be in possession of their resources. On the 6th of June, Napoleon passed the Vistula, and shortly after the Niemen. "Russia," said he, in one of his favourite harangues, "is dragged along by a fatality! Her destinies must be accomplished. Are we no longer to be regarded as the soldiers of Austerlitz? Let us carry the war into her territory: a second war in Poland will be as glorious to the French arms as the first." After several severe battles, and the loss of many men on each side, the victory generally inclining in favour of the French, the main body of the Russian army retired to Smolensko. Fatigue and want, of all kinds, had meanwhile operated so detrimentally on the French army, that it was obliged to halt at this point for ten days, during which the two Russian armies formed a junction under the walls of Smolensko. They then immediately began to act on the offensive. With twelve thousand cavalry they attacked General Sebastiani, and drove him back with considerable loss. On the

17th of August the main body put itself in motion to encounter the French army, which had advanced, in order, if possible, to compel a general battle. When Napoleon saw his attempts to surround the right wing of the Russians defeated, he ordered his right wing, under Poniatowski, to hasten, by way of Ortza, by rapid marches, to cut off the Russians from Moscow. On the other hand, Bagration hastened to defend this road, and Barclay de Tolly sought to retard the enemy as much as possible. Smolensko, an old place, formerly strongly fortified, and the whole position on the Dnieper, greatly favoured his plan; and not till the midnight of the 17th, after a loss of many thousands, did the French succeed in taking this bulwark, reduced, for the most part, to a ruin.

The Russian army retired in haste, burning all the towns through which it passed, while Napoleon followed, his troops suffering more and more from want and climate. Meanwhile, Barclay de Tolly had to resign the chief command to Kutusoff, who had reaped new laurels in the Turkish war just ended. Reinforced by militia and reserves, he resolved to wait the enemy seventy miles from Moscow, in a strong entrenched position. The French came up, and a terrible battle ensued, in which the Russians lost twenty-five thousand men. The French estimated their own loss at ten thousand; it was, however, supposed to be near double that number. The Russians remained masters of the field of battle; and without any great loss of artillery, and still less of prisoners, they were able to retire to Moscow. Napoleon, after two days' repose, followed them; and Kutusoff, instead of awaiting his enemy at the gates of Moscow, marched through. The news of Kutusoff's defeat had spread the greatest consternation at Moscow. Hastily collecting their money and valuables, the nobles fled, abandoning their palaces and furniture to the mercy of the invaders. Merchants and tradesmen closed their warehouses and shops, seeking refuge from the enemy wherever they could find shelter; the sick and wounded were conveyed away from the hospital in wagons; and the prisons were cleared of their inmates, who were sent under an escort to Novogorod. And now the flames burst forth from the house of Count Rostopchin—sure and awful evidence that the patriotic governor, by setting fire to his own residence, intended that the venerable city should not harbour the enemies of his country. The conflagration of the governor's house was the signal for the rest; and suddenly were seen, issuing from various quarters of Moscow, vivid columns of fire and dense masses of smoke. Doomed, as it were, to pass their winter amid the inhospitable snows of Russia unless they could extinguish the flames, the French soldiery exerted themselves to the utmost to stay the devouring element; but, though they partially succeeded, so little remained of Moscow, that it was incapable of affording them protection. It must be remembered, also, that the French troops having had permission to plunder the city, such a scene of confusion and drunkenness followed, that numbers of them perished in the burning ruins.

All the hopes which Napoleon had built on the possession of Moscow were now disappointed; famine and desolation stared him in the face; and as the Russians gathered round on all sides it was evident that nothing could save his army but a speedy retreat or peace. Every day heightened their sufferings, the provisions having been wasted, and foraging becoming continually more dangerous, from the conflux of Russian peasants and Cossacks. At length, on the 19th of October, the French evacuated Moscow, and commenced their retrogade march. The country was a desert; and the privations felt by the army had dissolved all bonds of obedience, while the severity of the winter now covered the roads with ice and snow, destroying men and horses by thousands. By the 12th of November they reached Smolensko. But in vain had the remnants of the army hoped to find there repose and nourishment. The increasing

numbers of the Russians who hovered round and harassed the retreating enemy prevented them from repairing any of their vast losses, or of re-invigorating themselves by rest. At the passage of the Beresina they lost twenty thousand men, and a great part of their baggage and artillery; and the cold, which increased every day, together with the most horrible want, carried disorder, misery, and despair to the highest pitch. At length Napoleon entrusted the command of his shattered army to Murat, and hastened himself, under the strictest incognito, by way of Warsaw and Dresden, to Paris. Marshals, officers of high and low rank—all who could—followed the example of their emperor. No company kept long together. The sole object of all was to save life.

The emperor Alexander, who had hitherto only fought for independence, now resolved in his turn to become the aggressor; and, joining his army in Poland, published in February, 1813, the celebrated manifesto, which served as a basis for the coalition of the other powers of Europe against the ambition of the French. The king of Prussia at the same time summoned all capable of bearing arms to battle for their country; and though he did not then designate his object, his people, who for five years had been humbled and degraded, understood him, and, with unparalleled enthusiasm, thousands poured forth from the places of rendezvous from every section of the country. In vain had the French with the aid of their last reserves and of troops drawn together in haste, made efforts to remain on the Pregel, on the Vistula, and on the Oder. The Russians advanced slowly, indeed, but everywhere with overwhelming power; and all that the French could do was to retire behind the Elbe with the least possible loss. Prussia now declared war against France, and concluded an alliance with Russia; the confederation of the Rhine was dissolved; and, though Austria remained neutral, the popular insurrection was almost universal in northern Germany. Happily for Napoleon, the Prussians and Russians were not in a state to derive the full advantage from this situation of things. The forces of the Russians were almost exhausted, those of the Prussians had first to be formed; much time was lost in negotiations with the king of Saxony, and Kutusoff fell sick and died at Buntzlaw. These circumstances were promptly taken advantage of by Napoleon; but though this prolonged the contest, it proved but of little avail in the sequel.

In August the war was resumed with great vigour, Austria participating in it as an ally of Russia and Prussia. Napoleon had been joined by a corps of chosen men, chiefly cavalry, which had come from Spain; and the chances of victory, for a time, once more appeared to be in his favour. But after the battle of Dresden, where Moreau was mortally wounded, he was staid in his progress by the defeat of Vandamme, at Culm; by the simultaneous overthrow of his army in Silesia, under Macdonald; by the hard-fought battles at Gross-Beerea; at Belzig; and by the defeat which Ney suffered at Deunewitz. In addition to these misfortunes, want of all kinds prevailed in exhausted Saxony, and lamentations in the hospitals, where thousands died of dysenteries and fevers. At last, by some rapid, well-covered marches, Blucher formed a junction on the Elbe with the crown-prince of Sweden, while he surprised a French corps under Count Bertrand, and took up a position between the Muldan and the Elbe. As soon as he was advised of this, Napoleon started from Dresden, in the hope of overpowering them both separately; but they had already crossed the Muldan to the Saale. The great Bohemian army had also advanced on his right flank. These and Blucher's flying corps met in his rear; and General Thielemann, who had exchanged the Saxon service for the Russian, took whole troops of French fugitives, and fought several battles between the Elster and the Saale, almost all of which resulted to the disadvantage of the French. Napoleon now proceeded with his main army to

the plains of Leipsic, where he arrived October 13. Here Schwartzenberg had already commenced a reconnoisance against the king of Naples; meanwhile Augereau's division had been greatly reinforced; and, as he had probably thought he had deceived the crown-prince and Blucher by movements made on the other side of Wittenberg, and that he had gained so much time that he could meet the great Bohemian army alone in a decisive engagement, he did not delay to encounter it in the spacious plain near Leipsic. The engagement commenced about nine o'clock in the morning of October 16. After severely destructive attacks on both sides, Napoleon had gained some ground in the centre and on the left wing. But the duke of Ragusa, who occupied a wide line to the north of Leipsic, was unexpectedly attacked by Blucher with the greatest impetuosity, totally defeated, after an obstinate resistance, and driven back in disorder.

On the 17th Napoleon negotiated through Count Meerveldt, who had been taken prisoner, for liberty to retire undisturbed, and for an armistice; both of which proposals were the less listened to, because the allies could now conduct their operations with a mutual understanding, the crown-prince of Sweden having joined Blucher with upwards of sixty thousand men, and General Bennigsen, with almost as many, being hourly expected from Grimma. On the 18th of October, therefore, a fearful conflict took place at Leipsic. The French fought with desperation, to save their honour and secure their retreat, which had been commenced at day-break; but on the following day their retreat was converted into a flight, and a general overthrow. This battle emancipated Germany. Bavaria had already renounced the confederation of the Rhine, and united with Austria. All the German princes followed this example, with the exception of the king of Saxony, Jerome of Westphalia, and the prince-primate. After the loss of many thousands, in prisoners and wounded, Napoleon, assailed or harrassed in every quarter, was obliged, in order to gain the Rhine, to sustain a desperate conflict with the Bavarians and Austrians stationed at Hanau. The allies made a halt on the Rhine, in order to unite the forces of liberated Germany with those furnished by England and Holland. Even the Danes, who had been forced to form the closest union with Napoleon, in consequence of the hard terms proffered them by England and Sweden in the spring of 1813, were obliged to concede all that they had formerly refused.

French affairs in Spain had also taken a most unfavourable turn. Marshal Jourdan had been totally defeated by Wellington at Vittoria, had been forced back to the Pyrenees with the loss of his artillery, and, subsequently, Soult and Suchet had with difficulty kept the English from the soil of France itself; and it was consequently necessary to send thither new forces. The French senate, always before obsequious enough, now ventured to remonstrate, when repeated decrees of the emperor had already ordered the levy of nearly half a million of conscripts, the organization of cohorts of national guards, and the formation of four armies of reserve. Still stronger terms of dissatisfaction were used by some of the deputies; and, in consequence of the general indignation at the enormous expenditure of human life, great difficulties now presented themselves in the formation of a new French army. Beyond the Rhine, from Switzerland to Holland, the allies found but little resistance. They made themselves masters of all the passes to Italy, of the city of Geneva, of the roads over the Simplon and St. Bernard, and early in January they occupied a new line, covered on the left by the Seine, on the right by the Meuse, in Alsace, Lorraine, Deux-Ponts, &c., with the exception of the invested fortresses. Napoleon had issued a proclamation for a kind of general rising of the people: but measures of this kind, which worked wonders in the revolution, were now almost wholly disregarded. Meanwhile the allied troops steadily advanced, and though several engagements

took place, in no instance had a French general strength enough to maintain the most important points against the overwhelming force of the invaders.

On the 1st of February was fought the sanguinary battle of Brienne, in which Napoleon lost 12,000 prisoners and seventy-three cannon. He had 70,000 men in the field, and no blame can attach to either them or their commander for the loss of the day; the most desperate resistance on the part of the troops, and the most active superintendance on the part of Napoleon being everywhere apparent. Eager to improve their first victory on French ground, the allies pushed forward, and divided their forces, of which Napoleon, with great boldness and address, took advantage. But, though he had received considerable reinforcements from the army in Spain, he was too much enfeebled to prevent the Russian, Austrian, and Prussian commanders from proceeding towards Paris in two large columns, one on the Seine, the other on the Marne. The operations of the allied troops from this period having been already detailed, we deem it unnecessary to pursue the subject further. In the transactions which took place relative to the abdication of Bonaparte, the occupation of Paris, &c., the emperor Alexander took the lead; and with magnanimity, as if oblivious of the wrongs his own country had received, he endeavoured to allay those feelings of vengeance in some of his allies which, without such humane consideration, might have laid the French capital in ashes, and given rise to a new and more dreadful war. As it was considered necessary that the boundaries of each sovereign should be permanently fixed, a congress of the principal powers was held at Vienna. But before any final arrangements were made, the congress was hastily broken up, in consequence of the sudden return of Bonaparte from Elba to France. The allied armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, once more prepared to take the field; but the English, Belgians, and Prussians, at the battle of Waterloo, decided the fate of Europe, and of him who had so long been its disturber.

It is now necessary to revert to the affairs of Russia, in connection with the Ottoman empire, as they existed previous to the French invasion. It had been a favourite scheme of ambition with Catharine II. to expel the Turks from Europe; with that view she had sought every opportunity, however frivolous the pretence, of engaging them in hostilities; and as the Turks were generally worsted, Russia generally acquired some new territory, and a greater influence over the Sublime Porte. The Russians had also been at war with Persia. By the peace of Bucharest, signed in May, 1812, the former power ceded to Moldavia as far as the Pruth, Bessarabia and the chief mouths of the Danube: the peace of Tiflis, in 1813, with the latter, gained her all the territory west of the Caspian sea, between the Kur and the Anaxes, Georgia having been united before with Russia; and on the east coast as far as the Gulf of Balkan, with the exclusive navigation of the Caspian sea. The Russian empire having become so extensive and formidable, Alexander took every means, by founding and supporting the holy alliance, to maintain his high position. After the conquest of Aix-la-Chapelle, Russia appears to have discovered that her influence over Europe would be best promoted by the continuance of peace, which would enable her to develope those resources which make a country formidable in war; and to that end Alexander re-organized almost the whole of the interior of his empire.

Among other matters that were settled at the congress of Vienna, it was determined that Poland should be annexed to the Russian empire, with a separate government; and Alexander was accordingly crowned king of Poland. The remainder of his reign was spent in the most laudable exertions for the benefit of his people. The abuses which were practised in all departments, civil, military, and judicial, required a degree of reso-

lution and perseverance to correct; and the emperor set about this work of reformation with all the honesty and zeal of a patriot prince. He made frequent tours through his provinces, in order to be an eye-witness of the local administration of the laws; and he neglected no opportunity of improving the general condition of his subjects, and of abolishing vassalage; but the resistance made to his benevolent exertions in this latter measure prevented him from carrying out his intentions to any great extent. He, however, encouraged the arts and literature, and effected many salutary changes in the condition of the people, while he patronized commerce, encouraged manufacturers, and promoted the diffusion of knowledge, by means of the press, which was protected by a careful censorship from the pestilent effects of licentiousness in morals, and of sedition in politics.

The emperor Alexander died December 1, 1825, at Taganrock, a town founded by Peter the Great, on the sea of Azof. He was succeeded by Nicholas,—the grand duke Constantine, afterwards viceroy of Poland, having renounced his right to the throne of Russia, according to a previous arrangement. A conspiracy soon after broke out, when the regiments of the guard, who had taken the oath to Constantine immediately after Alexander's death, refused to take the oath to Nicholas, and a tumult ensued, which was suppressed at last by the mingled firmness and moderation of the emperor. On the matter being afterwards investigated, it appeared that it was the result of a conspiracy which had existed for many years; and different punishments were assigned, according to the degrees of guilt of the parties implicated; some being executed, some banished to Siberia, and others imprisoned; but the far greater number were pardoned. Soon after Alexander's death, a war with Persia broke out, in consequence of disputes arising from the non-settlement of certain boundaries between Russia and that power. Abbas Mirza, who had just then succeeded to the throne of Persia, thinking the moment propitious for attacking Russia, at once marched over the frontier, and advaced as far as Elizabethpol; but the Persians were defeated and driven back. War was now immediately declared against them, and general Paskewitsch, being appointed commander-in-chief, passed the Araxes, took several strong fortresses, entered ancient Media with no opposition, and forced the shah to sue for peace, compelling him to give up an extensive territory on the south-western shore of the Caspian sea, with some provinces on the Caucasus, besides making them pay the expenses of the war, and the losses by the invasion.

The Caucasus consists of two parallel chains of mountains in western Asia, covering the country between the Black and the Caspian seas. They extend nearly seven hundred miles, and are rendered almost impassable by rushing torrents, steep precipices, and frightful avalanches. The summits of these mountains are covered with perpetual snows, and are mostly barren; but the lower parts are clothed with thick forests, and the plains abound in orchards, vineyards, corn-fields, and pastures. It comprises the provinces of Georgia, Circassia, Melitenia, Great and Little Kabarda, Daghestan, which is the mountain-land bordering on the Caspian sea, and Schirvan, called the Paradise of Roses, from the abundance of beautiful flowers which grow there spontaneously. The tribes who dwell in the higher regions of the Caucasus, especially the Lesghians, who inhabit the most eastern parts, live by plundering their neighbours, and are held in such terror, that several tribes purchase immunity from their depredations by paying them tribute.

The war with Persia was scarcely ended when Turkey engaged the attention of the Russian government, and the Russian minister, Nesselrode, declared to France and Great Britain, that his sovereign must have satisfaction for the violation of the treaty of Ackermann, and for the

hatti-sheriff of December, 1820, which the Porte had addressed to all the pachas, and which contained many offensive charges against Russia. A declaration of war was accordingly issued by the emperor, and on the 7th of May, 1828, the Russian forces passed the Pruth, to the number of 15,000 men, including persons of all descriptions attached to the camp. Count Wittgenstein was commander-in-chief. In a fortnight the Russians had possession of several towns and fortresses, and the Turks retired into the fortified mountain-position of Choumla, which was the centre of their operations. The Russians at length took Prawodi, the key of the Balkan; and their next aim was to gain possession of Varna. To carry on a siege in a vast and almost uninhabitable country like Bulgaria, under the fatal influence of the climate, the difficulty was great; but in proportion as the difficulties were great, so were the exertions of the besiegers, and after it had been invested both on the land and sea sides, breaches were made, and a body of troops forced their way into the city. Terrified by this, the enemy gave up all further resistance, and the campaign in Asia proved successful. The predatory population on the Caucasian mountains submitted to Russia. The army under Count Paskewitch forced its way from Caucasus and Ararat into Asiatic Turkey, and took by storm the strong fortress of Khara, the central point of Turkish Armenia, together with the enemy's camp. After this, several other fortresses fell into their hands, so that beside obtaining possession of Mingrelia and Imiretia, the whole pachalic of Bajasid, as far as the banks of the Euphrates, was conquered. In Europe the success of the Russians was more equivocal; the results of the whole, however, were important. In Europe and in Asia, Russia had gained two Turkish principalities and three pachalics, fourteen fortresses, and three castles.

The Russian emperor had repeated his inclination for peace with the Porte, on terms of indemnification for the expenses of the war, and security against future injuries; but the Porte had refused. On the contrary, Mahmoud announced a new campaign, with the words, "Honour and independence are worth more than life." Hitherto the negotiations had been carried on in Constantinople, with the reis effendi, by the minister of the Netherlands. He had delivered to the reis effendi the manifesto of France, Great Britain, and Russia, (of August 11, 1828), which made known to the Porte the motive and object of the French expedition against the Morea. The Prussian ambassador likewise advised the Porte to yield; but no representations would induce the sultan to do so, and preparations for another campaign were made with unusual vigour. In the beginning of 1829, General Diebitsch was appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian forces; and although the Turkish army was greatly reinforced, and under the command of officers of high renown and unquestionable bravery, the Russian generals Diebitsch and Paskewitch proved too much for them. The latter took possession of Erzerum, the centre of the Turkish power in Asia. The seraskier, commander-in-chief of the whole Turkish army, and governor of all Asiatic Turkey, was taken prisoner, together with four principal pachas, and 150 pieces of cannon. But the sharpest contest of the Asiatic campaign was occasioned by the attempt of the pacha of Vau to retake the fortress of Bajasid. The attack was made with 7000 infantry and 5000 cavalry, aided by the fire from a battery, on a range of rocks, which swept the Russian troops on the flank and rear, and the fire of musketry from the inhabitants of the Tartar quarter of the place. After thirty-two hours of incessant fighting, the Turks retreated. The career of Paskewitch in this campaign had been one of continual success; and such had been his preceding campaign in Persia.

The campaign in the European provinces was still more successful. Several battles were fought in the spring, in which the Russians under

Diebitsch generally had the advantage, European tactics giving him a decided superiority. At length Silistria surrendered, and the garrison of 10,000 men became prisoners of war; 220 pieces of cannon, eighty standards, and the whole of the Turkish flotilla, falling into the hands of the Russians. Diebitsch now hastened to cross the Balkan, and continued his march without any serious obstacles, except such as the excessive heat of the weather, &c., presented, till he reached Adrianople, which he took on the 20th of July. Foiled at every point, the Porte was now ready to commence negotiations; and accordingly a treaty of peace was signed, the principal points of which were, the cessation of hostilities; the restoration by Russia of the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, and of all the towns occupied by the Russians in Bulgaria and Romelia; the settlement of the boundaries between the two powers in Europe and Asia; the provisions for the religious liberty, independent administration, and free trade of the people of Moldavia and Wallachia; freedom of commerce to Russian subjects throughout the Ottoman empire, as secured by former treaties; free commerce and navigation of the Black Sea to all nations at peace with the Porte; the stipulation of the Porte to pay 1,500,000 ducats of Holland to Russia within eighteen months, as an indemnification for losses of Russian subjects, and a further sum, such as should be agreed on, as an indemnity for the expenses of the war; with the accession of the Porte to the arrangements of Russia, Great Britain, and France, respecting Greece. Thus the emperor Nicholas, according to the pledge he had given to his allies at the commencement of the war, stopped short in the career of conquest, when he had obtained the objects for which the war was professedly undertaken.

THE HISTORY OF POLAND.

Most countries have some positive origin attributed to them, and handed down to present times by tradition, although no trace of a written history may be found; it is not so, however, with Poland. In the time of the Romans it is likely to have been an unexplored part of the great Hyrcanian forest; and such inhabitants as it contained probably belonged to the Sarmatians, a nation of barbarians more fierce and savage than any of the other hordes with whom the civilized conquerors of Europe had to contend in their work of universal subjugation. But be that as it may, it seems clear that Poland either afforded no materials for the historian, or the country produced no writer to record its history, for a considerable time after the other nations of Europe emerged from obscurity. It appears, indeed, that an army of Sclavonians, under the command of Lesko, took possession of the country, A. D. 550, and that this leader became the first of a race of kings, who held the sovereign power for a century.

The next dynasty of kings is distinguished by the name of its first sovereign, and called the dynasty of Piast: but nothing worthy of notice is preserved, until Jagellon, grand duke of Lithuania, obtained the sovereignty of Poland in the year 1385. On his being elected king, he renounced the doctrines of paganism, to which he had before adhered, and embraced Christianity; from which time it spread rapidly among the

Poles. This prince united the whole of his hereditary dominions to those of Poland: in return for which the Poles rendered the crown hereditary in his family; but his male line terminated in the person of Sigismund Augustus, in 1572. Two competitors then started for the vacant crown; Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. of France, and Maximilian of Austria. After a long conflict, the former of these obtained the prize; but on the death of his brother, he succeeded to the crown of France, and abandoned that of Poland.

From this reign we may date the correspondence between the French and the Poles, which subsisted until the increasing power of its northern neighbours entirely counteracted the politics of the court of Versailles. On the second vacancy, Maximilian was still rejected; and Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania, chosen, on account of the high renown which he had acquired. He married Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, of the royal house of Jagellon, which rendered him highly popular. He waged war with the Muscovites, and recovered from them all that they had formerly taken from the Poles; after which he settled the Ukraine, which, in the Polish language, signifies the frontier, and which was at that time a wild and unprofitable desert. He it was that introduced military tenure into Poland, by which he formed the best cavalry in the world. He likewise established a militia, composed of Cossacks, which soon became a respectable body of infantry. These Cossacks he settled in the Ukraine. Having performed these essential services to the kingdom which he governed, he died, in 1586.

Theodore, czar of Russia, Maximilian, archduke of Austria, and Sigismund, prince of Sweden, now severally put forth claims and contended for the crown. The year after, Sigismund, having defeated and taken prisoner his rival, Maximilian, became too formidable for Theodore; and established himself on the throne by the name of Sigismund III. He was a zealous papist, and waged a long and unsuccessful war with his native country, Sweden; but in his wars with the Turks he was more fortunate. He reigned forty-four years, and was succeeded by his eldest son Uladislaus VII., who was chosen the 16th of November, 1632. He was successful against the Turks, the Russians, and the Swedes, and died in 1648. In his reign the interests of the Polish nobility clashing with the grants which had been made to the Cossacks in the Ukraine, a fierce contention arose. His brother, John Casimir, succeeded him, although a cardinal. The elector of Brandenburgh, in his reign, found means to obtain from the Poles a renunciation of their sovereignty over ducal Prussia, which he held as a vassal of the crown of Poland. This renunciation was ratified by the treaty of Oliva in 1660. Casimir then attempting to gain an uncontrolable and absolute sovereignty in Poland, excited a civil war; and in the issue his army was defeated by prince Lubomirski. He afterwards found means, however, to drain the country of its current specie, which he remitted to France; and being no longer able to maintain his footing in Poland, he precipitately quitted the kingdom, and followed his wealth. In this state of voluntary exile he made a formal renunciation of the crown, and died two years after.

On the resignation of Casimir, four candidates appeared: namely, the prince of Russia; the duke of Newbourg, who was supported by the interests of France; the duke of Lorraine, who was backed by the German power; and the son of the prince of Condé; but it was soon found that the contest lay between the dukes of Newbourg and Lorraine. The palatine Opalenski, however, by popular harangues, had the address to set them both aside, and procure the election of prince Michael Wiesnowiski, in 1760, who reckoned his descent from a brother of Jagellon. He was chosen to the royal dignity as being a Piast, a title highly respected in Poland, and signifying a nobleman who can trace his descent through a

long line of Polish ancestors; but being a weak prince, the Turks took advantage of his incapacity, invaded Poland, and took Kaminieck, the capital of Podolia. Michael did not long enjoy his dignity; he died three years after his elevation, at the very time when Sobieski, the Polish general, had gained a great and decisive victory over the Turks. Another contention then arose about a successor; but at length the diet unanimously chose John Sobieski for their king, who maintained a war against the Turks, although ill seconded by the nobility; and in 1675, at the head of no more than 5,000 men, he defeated 60,000 Turks and Tartars: after which, receiving a reinforcement of 10,000 troops, he drove 100,000 of the enemy out of Podolia, and was crowned at Cracow, in February, 1676.

The Turks by this defeat were brought to acquiesce in terms of peace, which were observed during seven years; but in 1683, the Ottomans invaded Hungary, and laid siege to Vienna. The neighbouring princes being roused to action by the impending danger, put their forces under the command of Sobieski, whose army mustered forty thousand strong; with which force he attacked and defeated the infidels, whose numbers were little short of two hundred thousand. This decisive stroke restored peace; but the great military talents of the king, joined to his extreme parsimony, created jealousies among the Polish nobility, of his having formed designs of changing the constitution of the kingdom, and rendering himself an absolute monarch. These apprehensions, which were never supported by any direct proofs, embittered his latter days. He died in 1696, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, and the twenty-second of his reign. He left a son, Prince James Sobieski, whom, however, the Poles did not nominate for their king. An interregnum of a twelvemonth followed: at length Frederick Augustus, elector of Saxony, was chosen, in preference to the prince of Conti, whose pretensions were backed by the interests of France; but in 1705, the Poles being tampered with by Charles XII. of Sweden, declared the crown vacant, and chose Stanislaus Leesenski, palatine Posnania; to establish whom on the throne, Charles of Sweden entered Saxony with a powerful army, and compelled Augustus to save his electorate by abandoning his pretensions to the crown of Poland. The reverses of fortune which Charles experienced in 1708, gave Augustus the ascendency; and his competitor found it necessary, in his turn, to quit the kingdom. Disputes and ill-will, however, prevailed between Augustus and the nobility, from this time until his death, which happened in January, 1732–3.

Whether the house of Austria, or that of Bourbon, should fix the succession to the throne of Poland, then plunged Europe into war. The former supported the pretensions of Augustus, the son of the deceased king; in which nomination the court of St. Petersburg also concurred; the latter aimed at restoring the abdicated Stanislaus, whose daughter, the princess Mary, was married to Louis XV. Notwithstanding this alliance, his interest was not vigorously supported by the court of Versailles; and he was finally driven out of Poland, possessed of nothing more than the empty title of king; he, however, gained the duchy of Loraine and Bar, which he enjoyed the remainder of his life. Stanislaus died in January, 1766, having attained to the great age of eighty-nine years. He was distinguished for his talents and virtues; his humanity was active, and displayed itself in many noble instances of kindness and generosity. Though deprived of the crown of Poland, he expressed his strong attachment to the prosperity of that country, and his thorough knowledge of its interests, in a work which he wrote and published in the year 1659, entitled, *La Voix Libre du Citoyen; ou Observations sur le Gouvernement du Pologne.*

Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, was chosen king of Poland in September, 1733, in the forty-sixth year of his age. He was the third king

of that name. He married Maria Josepha, daughter of the emperor Joseph I. In the winter of 1745, the king of Prussia attacked him in his hereditary dominions, made himself master of Dresden, and forced the elector to accept such conditions of peace as were proffered. In 1756, the king of Poland having secretly become a party in a confederacy formed by the empress-queen and the king of France, to strip the king of Prussia of the province of Silesia, the unfortunate Augustus suddenly fell a victim to the resentment of that monarch, who took possession of Dresden, his capital, and compelled his whole army, consisting of thirteen thousand men, to surrender prisoners of war; after which he experienced the most bitter calamities. His queen, whose every motion was narrowly watched by the emissaries of the Prussian monarch, died of a broken heart; while the designs which the king had formed for the advancement of his family, by procuring for one of his sons the dukedom of Courland, and for another the bishopric of Liege, were entirely frustrated. Worn down with years as well as with sorrows, he resigned his breath on the 5th of October, 1763, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and the thirtieth year from his election to the crown of Poland.

The son of Augustus declared himself a candidate for the vacant crown; but he died of the small-pox in less than two months after. Count Poniatowski, on account of his eminent merit, was unanimously elected king, on the 7th of September, 1764, without any commotion or disturbance. The powers of Russia, Prussia, and Turkey, supported his pretensions. The ambassadors of France, Spain, and the empire, who opposed his election, retired from Warsaw, when the diet assembled. He took the name of Stanislaus Augustus. The new king had not long sat upon the throne, before some Russian troops entered his kingdom on the plea of procuring a toleration and other privileges for the oppressed and persecuted "dissidents," who were of the Greek church, and also for the Lutheran and other reformed Christians. The bitter enmity which subsisted between the Roman catholics and the dissidents, kindled the flames of a fierce, bloody, and desolating civil war, which raged during the years 1769, 1770 and 1771; in the midst of which, the miserable Poles were visited with the pestilence, which swept off two hundred thousand of the population. The part which the king of Poland took against the dissidents, caused a conspiracy to be formed to assassinate him, in November, 1771; from which attempt upon his life he escaped almost by a miracle. Many of the conspirators lost their lives by the hands of the executioners.

Among the Poles the love of freedom prevailed without the spirit of union. A kingdom fertile and extensive as that of Poland, torn by intestine commotions, and unprovided with the means of self-defence, presented a most alluring prospect to its powerful neighbours. It is needless to mention the frivolous and obscure claims set up by the three partitioning powers, to the territories which they designed to appropriate; it is sufficient to describe the countries which were thus forcibly wrested. The claims of Austria comprehended the southern parts of Little Poland, and the whole of Red Russia, with Procutia. The royal salt mines at Wieluski, Brochnia, and other places in Little Poland were in the territory thus seized. The district seized upon by the empress of Russia, was the whole of Polish Livonia, and that part of Lithuania which borders on the Russian empire, and extending over that duchy even beyond the river Beresina. The king of Prussia took possession of all the western parts of Pomerania, bounded on the south by the river Netz, together with the whole of Polish Prussia; the cities of Dantzic and Thorn only excepted. As these countries form the southern shores of the Baltic, and give the command of the Vistula, they were highly important to a monarch, whose dominions, before this acquisition, could not furnish a capacious harbour for shipping. The political views of the king of Prussia thereby became

much enlarged, being directed to commercial and maritime objects. The inhabitants of the countries thus dismembered were required, by the manifestos, to take oaths of allegiance and fidelity to their new sovereigns, within a very short space of time, on pain of forfeiting their estates. The independent spirit of the Polish nobility could ill brook such mandates; many chose rather to abandon their country and estates, and submit to voluntary exile; carrying with them such parts of their property as the short time allotted them would enable them to collect. The confiscation of these estates was an object of great consequence to each sovereign: it being a cruel policy constantly practised by invaders and usurpers, to oppress and ruin the native nobility, in order to provide for their own adherents. This memorable partition took place in September, 1772.

The king of Poland, unable to make opposition to these violent acts, was induced to give his sanction by being put in possession of a rich territory, which was rendered hereditary in his family; besides which a large sum of money, to enable him to pay off his debts, was presented to him, as the farther price for this his sacrifice of duty to tyranny. Still, however, to add insult to injury, a diet was called; the members of which were compelled to give their votes to ratify the alienation of so great a part of the kingdom. It was thought, however, that this change of government, though brought about without any colour of justice, might, after the convulsions caused by its first establishment had subsided, tend to enlarge the sum of human happiness in those districts, as well as to render the country more wealthy and flourishing, as the oppressions of the nobility were likely to be greatly restrained, and the condition of the peasantry to be considerably amended.

A new constitution was settled for Poland on the 3d of May, 1791, by which the Catholic faith was declared to be the religion of the country, but a toleration was extended to all religious persuasions. For a few years Poland appeared to flourish; and that part of it which was left to Stanislaus was greatly benefitted by his judicious introduction of artisans from France and other countries, under whose superintendence the manufactures of the country were carried on to considerable advantage. But though the Poles were attached to their king, they saw, with indignation and distrust, the prospect of being still farther humbled and reduced by the three self-elected arbiters of a nation's fate. The French revolution had just broken out; and the Russian empress, fearing the effect of such an example upon a warlike people, agreed with the king of Prussia to make such new division of the Polish territories as should render all attempts fruitless which they might make to recover their independence.

Relying upon the protection of the king of Prussia, who had engaged to prevent the interference of any foreign power with the internal concerns of Poland, the Poles were not intimidated at the hostile preparations of Russia. But their hopes were miserably disappointed. Frederic William, when appealed to, refused to espouse their cause; and they were left to engage single-handed with the whole forces of the Russian empire. Catherine immediately marched an army into Poland; and Stanislaus raised a considerable force, which was placed under the command of his nephew, Prince Joseph Poniatowski; but the Polish monarch, desirous of averting the miseries of war, acceded to the terms of Russia, annulled the new constitution, and allowed the Russians to take possession of his capital. This occurred in 1793. Having proved so far fortunate, Catherine resolved to secure her dominion over Poland by still more weakening its power; and, in consequence, agreed upon a further partition of this despoiled kingdom, in conjunction with the king of Prussia, who siezed as his share the cities of Thorn and Dantzic. Amazed at this act of aggressive duplicity, and deluded by the ambiguous answers of the Russian ambassador, the confederates of Targovitz invited the nation to rise in de-

fence of the integrity of the kingdom; and this call was obeyed with singular alacrity. The Russian forces were now ordered to act in concert with those of Prussia; and the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, openly avowing their intention of effecting a further dismemberment of Poland, forcibly obtained the silent assent of the diet of Grodno to this iniquitous measure.

The indignation of the Polish patriots was now raised to its highest pitch, and they instantly resolved to make one more desperate and final effort to restore the freedom of their country. With amazing rapidity a general insurrection was organized, and as the king had lost the confidence of the nation by his weakness, the troops unanimously placed at their head the celebrated Count Thaddeus Kosciusko, a young man of high birth but small fortune, who had been educated in the military school at Warsaw, and had served as aid-de-camp to General Washington, in the American war of independence. Madalinska, a Polish general, raised the standard of revolt, and, in conjunction with Kosciusko, took Cracow, from which city they issued an address to the nation, and signed an act declaratory of their motives and intentions. Kosciusko was then placed at the head of the army and of the republic, with unlimited power.

The first operation of the severe contest that immediately ensued proved favourable to the patriots, who routed a Russian army of superior force near Cracow, and expelled them from Wilna. Meanwhile the Russian ambassador compelled Stanislaus to declare the insurgents rebels, and demanded the surrender of the arsenals. This demand drove the inhabitants to desperation; they flew to arms, and after a sanguinary contest of forty-eight hours, the Russians were driven out of Warsaw with immense slaughter; and preparations were immediately made, under the direction of Kosciusko, who repaired to the capital, to repel any future attack.

If the contest had hitherto been unequal, it was now rendered much more so. Austria entered into the views of Russia and Prussia, and powful armies advanced on every side. After an obstinate battle the king of Prussia defeated Kosciusko, took possession of Cracow, and marched towards Warsaw, where the enraged populace had committed great excesses. His offers of accommodation having been rejected, he laid siege to the capital, but being repulsed in a fierce attack upon the entrenched camp of the confederates, he was eventually compelled to abandon this enterprise, after a fruitless siege of two months. During the time these events took place at Warsaw, the Russians under Suwarrof had defeated the Poles at Brezesk, and General Fersen was endeavouring to unite his forces with the grand Russian army. Kosciusko hastened to prevent this junction; but in an obstinate battle against the superior forces of Fersen, the Poles were routed, and their gallant chief having been wounded and taken prisoner, was hurried as an exile to the dreary regions of Siberia. As far, however, as loss of liberty and expatriation could be rendered endurable, it was, under all circumstances, so rendered in the present instance; more than ordinary attention having been paid in providing him not only with suitable apartments, but with books, drawing materials, &c. for his recreation and amusement; an indulgence rarely granted to Russian captives.

Deeply was the loss of their beloved Thaddeus deplored by the Poles; and though it did not wholly break the spirit of the patriots, it nevertheless proved fatal to their cause. Suwarrof advanced without opposition under the walls of Warsaw; and the Polish generals took post in the suburbs of Praga, situate on the opposite bank of the Vistula. On the 4th of November, 1795, they were vigorously assaulted by Suwarrof, at the head of fifty thousand men. The contest raged above eight hours; but it terminated in the utter destruction of the Polish army, whose shattered remains retired into the city of Warsaw. The citizens of the capital surrendered to

the conquerors, who pillaged the city, and put to the sword nearly thirty thousand individuals, sparing neither age or sex. The troops endeavoured to force their way through the enemy's lines; but nearly the whole of them were cut to pieces. Poland, now laid prostrate, witnessed the departure of its last king, who, summoned to St. Petersburg, was compelled to abdicate his throne. The final partition of the kingdom, by the sovereigns of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, was not long delayed. A pension was settled on the ex-king, who retired first to Grodno; but on the death of Catherine, in 1796, he went to St. Petersburg, where he was treated with much respect and attention by the emperor Paul, at whose court he resided till his death. Fortunately for Kosciusko, and the Polish patriots in general, the new emperor looked on them with more than a pitying eye; he not only restored the former to liberty, but made him the most liberal offers to remain in his service; they were, however, respectfully declined; and the heroic chief, after spending some little time in England, went to America, where he remained a few years, and on his return to Europe, chose France as his residence, and settled near Fontainebleau. All the Polish patriots in the Russian prisons were released by the emperor Paul, and those who had been sent to Siberia, of whom there was not less than twelve thousand, were recalled. But many of the bravest Poles, who had fought with Kosciusko, making their escape, entered the French service, and were formed into separate battalions, distinguished by Bonaparte as his Polish legions.

When the emperor Alexander succeeded to the throne, in 1801, his conduct towards the Poles was not less liberal than that of Paul, his father, had been. Contrary to the plan pursued by the other two powers, he scrupled not to bestow high offices on the natives of the country, and preserved to them their ancient laws and privileges. Lithuania (the Russian portion) was divided into eight districts, with a governor over each, but all these governors were Lithuanian nobles; and members of the diet were elected by the people. The peasants were still held in feudal bondage, but encouragement was given to many plans which tended to their improvement, both morally and intellectually. Not long after Bonaparte reached the imperial dignity, one of his favourite schemes was that of freeing the Poles from the subjection of the three great northern powers and availing himself of the services of that hardy and warlike race, of whose valour and physical capabilities he had ample proofs in his late campaigns. He accordingly visited Kosciusko, who was still residing near Fontainebleau, and endeavoured to persuade him to take up arms, once more, for the land of his birth; but the gallant hero perhaps doubted the sincerity of the Gallic emperor's professions, and declined his overtures; but though Kosciusko refused, there were thousands of others who flocked to his standard, and Bonaparte pursued his plan of conquest. The event of the battle of Jena, fought with the Prussians in 1806, put him in possession of Warsaw, and all that part of Poland which had been annexed to Prussia; this territory he formed into a separate state, which he called the grand duchy of Warsaw; and, uniting it to Saxony, he gave to the king of that country the additional title of grand duke of Warsaw.

The dismembered country, which now first received internal order from foreign hands, continued in this condition till November, 1806, when Napoleon's victories led the emigrant Poles, under Dombrowski, to Posen and Warsaw. By the terms of the peace of Tilsit, July 9, 1807, the greater part of the Prussian Polish provinces was formed into the duchy of Warsaw, which received a German ruler in the king of Saxony, and, at the same time with the French code, a constitution similar to the French, by which bondage was abolished. Dantzic was to have been a republic under the protection of Prussia and Saxony, but remained a French place of arms. The grants bestowed on French officers, and still more the

continental system, which destroyed all trade, exhausted the public revenues; so that Poland, amid all its natural wealth, experienced the fate of Tantalus. The necessity of furnishing troops for the French service, was also a check on the prosperity of the new state, and annihilated all that Prussia had effected at great sacrifices. Yet the woollen and cotton manufactures, that had grown up in Posen and Broomberg, sustained themselves. The government of the duchy did everything practicable under such unfavourable circumstances. The war between France and Austria, in 1809, augmented, indeed, the sufferings of the country, but developed, to an extraordinary degree, the military energies of the people. Under the command of Poniatowski and French officers, the Polish troops rivalled the best troops of France in valour. They advanced to Cracow, and the peace of Vienna (Oct. 14, 1809) annexed Western Galicia to the duchy of Warsaw, which had hitherto contained thirty-nine thousand square miles, with 2,200,000 inhabitants; so that it now comprised sixty thousand square miles, with 3,780,000 inhabitants, and furnished a well-equipped army of sixty thousand men, which fought in Spain with great bravery.

Meanwhile Russia assumed the administration of the whole duchy. Dantzic, with its territory, reverted to Russia, and the congress at Vienna (in May, 1815) decided the fate of the country.—1. The city of Cracow, with its territory, was to be governed by its own laws as a free and independent republic;—2. The country on the right bank of the Vistula, with the circle of Tamapola, which had been ceded to Russia by the peace of Vienna, was restored to Austria;—3. The circles of Culm and Michelan, the city of Thorn and its territory, the department of Posen, with the exception of the circles of Powitz and Peysern, and part of the department of Kalisch, as far as the Prozna, excluding the city and circle of that name, were ceded to the king of Prussia, who united Dantzic, Thorn, Culm, and Michelan with West Russia, and from the remainder (11,400 square miles, with 847,000 inhabitants) formed the grand duchy of Posen, and appointed Prince Radzivil governor. All the rest was united with the Russian empire, under the name of the "kingdom of Poland," but with a separate administration, and such a territorial extent as the Russian emperor should see fit. The emperor Alexander, therefore, assumed the title of czar and king of Poland, and received homage in Warsaw.

Poland, though thus divided, preserved its name and language, as the treaties of Vienna secured to all Poles who were subjects of either of the three powers such an organization as tended to maintain their national existence. A Polish charter was accordingly promulgated (November 27, 1815). The government of the country was to be vested in a native Pole, as lieutenant of the kingdom, unless one of the imperial princes should be appointed viceroy. This was rendered nugatory by the presence of the tyrannical Constantine, as commander-in-chief. Equality of religious sects, personal security, liberty of the press, the entire possession of all employments, civil and military, in the country, by Poles, were among the promises of the charter; and these rights were to be secured by a national diet, composed of two chambers. But these promises were kept only to the ear; restrictions on the press, arbitrary imprisonment, and punishments; insults and injuries; a mockery of a diet, which was not allowed to exercise any real authority; the violation of every article of the charter by a Russian barbarian; peculation and extortion practised by the inferior officers;—these were some of the features of the Russian government of Poland.

On the death of Alexander (December, 1825) and the accession of Nicholas, a conspiracy broke out in Russia, and, on pretence that it extended to Warsaw, several hundred persons were arrested in Poland, and a commission constituted, contrary to the provisions of the charter, to in-

quire into the affair. The only discovery of this inquisitorial tribunal was, that secret societies had existed in Poland since 1821. In May, 1829, Nicholas was crowned at Warsaw. In 1828, however, a secret society had been instituted, for the purpose of gaining over the officers of the army to the cause of independence; and to their agency is the insurrection of 1830 to be attributed. It appears, nevertheless, that it was immediately occasioned by a sham conspiracy got up by the Russian police, who had thus induced a number of young men to betray themselves, and crowded the prisons with their victims. Not only Polish officers, youth of the military school, and students, had been gained over to the cause of the patriots, but the greater part of the citizens, and the chief nobles, were ready to encourage an effort to save themselves from what they now foresaw—the occupation of Poland by a Russian army, and the marching of the Polish troops to the south of Europe. Such was the state of things when the insurrection of Warsaw broke out, Nov. 19, 1830. A young officer entered the military school, on the evening of that day, and called the youth to arms. They immediately proceeded to Belvidere, the residence of Constantine, about two miles from the city, for the purpose of seizing his person. They were joined, on the way, by the students of the university, and forced their way into the palace; but the prince was concealed in a clothes-press, by a servant, until he could make his escape by a secret door. Another party of cadets and students paraded the streets, calling the citizens to arms, and they were joined by the Polish troops. The arsenal was seized, with forty thousand stand of arms, and the insurrection became general. On the next morning forty thousand troops and citizens were in arms, and the Russians were expelled from Warsaw.

The administrative council was summoned to preserve order; and, to give more influence to its measures, several of the most distinguished Poles were invited to sit with it. Measures were taken for the organization of a national guard, and of a new police and municipal government. On the 3d of December, the prince was allowed to leave the neighbourhood of Warsaw, with three regiments of Russian cavalry, and two regiments of infantry, without opposition. On the 5th, General Chlopicki was proclaimed dictator till the meeting of the diet, which was convoked for the 18th. Meanwhile Nicholas issued a proclamation, in which he declared that no concessions could be made to the rebels; and, on the 24th, another addressed to the Russians, telling them that the Poles had dared to propose conditions to their *legitimate* master: "God," he adds, "is with us; and in a single battle we shall be able to reduce to submission these disturbers of the peace." January 24, the Polish diet, which had been opened on the 18th of December, declared the absolute independence of Poland, and the termination of the Russian dominion; and on the 25th, that the Polish throne was vacant. Although the immediate cause of this revolution was the severe punishment inflicted on the pupils of the military academy, there is no doubt that the Poles were encouraged to make the attempt by the success that had attended the Parisians in the preceding July. The object of the Polish revolutionists, however, was not to withdraw themselves entirely from the authority of the Russian emperor, but only to maintain the privileges that were guaranteed to them at the congress of Vienna, and to get rid of the tyrannous viceroyship of the grand-duke Constantine. They had now, however, drawn the sword; and although two commissioners were sent to St. Petersburg to endeavour to effect an arrangement, the emperor refused to listen to them, and denounced the revolted Poles as traitors to whom no lenity would be shown.

Marshal Diebitsch, who had so successfully conducted the war with the Turks, entered Poland at the head of a large army. He advanced as far as the city of Warsaw, and was victorious over the Poles near the walls of

their capital, February 25, 1831 (the loss of the Poles is stated to have been 5,500, that of their enemies 4,500); but when Prince Radzivil resigned the command, on the 28th, and Skrzynecki, then only a colonel, was appointed in his place, the Polish cause gained strength. This brave officer, though finally unsuccessful, like the heroic Kosciusko, proved that he deserved a better fate. March 31, he was victorious over the Russians in a night attack. He advanced cautiously, and, favoured by the darkness of the night, reached their cantonments without being perceived. The advanced guard of General Geismar, consisting of eight or ten thousand men, was first attacked, and almost wholly destroyed; the Poles took four thousand prisoners and one thousand six hundred pieces of cannon. Immediately afterwards, he attacked General Rosen, who was posted with twenty thousand men at Dembe Wielski, and obliged him to retreat, with the loss of two thousand prisoners and nine pieces of cannon. Another important victory was gained near Zelechow, when twelve thousand Russians were killed, wounded, or taken, with twelve pieces of cannon. During this action, the Lithuanians and Volhynians, who served in the Russian army, turned their arms against the Russians, and materially contributed to the success of the Poles. The peasants in various quarters of Poland now took an active part in the war, and hastened, with whatever weapons they could obtain, to the army. Insurrections broke out in Lithuania, Volhynia, Kowno, Ukraine, Wilna, and even in ancient Poland, as far as Smolensk. On the other hand, General Dwernicki, who had been sent to make a demonstration in the rear of the Russians, and who had been victorious over them, was at last compelled to pass into the Austrian dominions, where he surrendered to the authorities of that country, April 27, with 5000 Poles. The ardour of the people, however, still continued, and hopes were entertained in every country that the manly resistance of the Poles would induce powerful cabinets to interfere; but, unfortunately, Prussia and Austria, being in possession of a part of the spoils of Poland, did all in their power to prevent interference, while Britain and France were too much occupied at home to render essential aid. The military operations were now prosecuted with new vigour, and the emperor, who, in a manifesto addressed to the Russians, had called them the legitimate masters of the Poles, was ready to make every sacrifice to regain the Polish throne. Their fate was soon decided. After two days fighting, Warsaw was taken by the Russians, (September, 1831); the confiscation of their property and exile to Siberia followed as a matter of course; and though many found an asylum in England, and other countries, they were mostly in extreme poverty, and dependent on the benevolence of those who pitied their hard fate while they admired their patriotism. Poland was soon afterwards incorporated with Russia; and although it has its separate diet and code of laws, Russian troops are stationed in all the principal towns, and it bears every semblance in other respects to a conquered country.

THE HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND.

From the earliest times this country has been no less celebrated for the spirit of freedom which animated the inhabitants, than for the beautiful and interesting character of its scenery. Snow-capped mountains, with

fertile vallies and peaceful lakes at their base, are here seen in contrast with noble forests, luxuriant vineyards, and glaciers of almost boundless extent, whose crystal pinnacles tower above each other and flash their light with all the brilliancy of a noon-day sun. But, in alluding to the geographical features of Switzerland, we must not forget that our present business is more particularly devoted to its history.

The northern and southern nations of Europe have been singularly intermingled in the history of Helvetia, whose Alpine walls seem like a barrier, separating them from each other. The Roman legions, indeed, conquered the Gauls, Rhætians and Alemanni, in the forests and marshes; but they could not destroy the northern spirit of freedom. The traces of its ancient subjugation to Rome are still visible in the Romanic language of a part of Switzerland. Helvetia, under the Romans, had a flourishing trade, which covered the land with cities and villages; and Switzerland still forms the connecting link between Northern Germany, the Netherlands and France on the one side, and Italy on the other. Before the fall of the Roman empire in the west, the northern and largest part of Switzerland, occupied by the Alemanni, had been conquered by the Franks. On the Jura dwelt the Burgundians, and Rhætia was under the Ostrogoths. Three German nations, therefore, freed the country, about A. D. 450, from the dominion of Rome.

Christianity had already been introduced into Helvetia from Italy, and as early as the fourth century there were Christian churches at Geneva, Coire, and other places. The Alemanni and Burgundians gave their laws and their habits to the Helvetians; and the Alemanni occupied the greater part of the country. Each soldier received a farm; a judge, or centgrave, was set over one hundred of these farms (forming a cent, or hundred); and the place of judgment, where he settled all questions between the free citizens, was called *Malluo*. Several cents formed a *Gau* (hence Thurgau, Aargau, &c.), the judge of which was styled *count* (graf); and the counts were under a duke. The great irruption of barbarians swept through the peaceful vallies of the Alps, and Roman civilization disappeared. Ostrogoths, Lombards, and even Huns, settled in different parts of the country. At last, the French, who had taken possession of the lands of the conquered Alemanni, drove the Ostrogoths over the Rhætian mountains.

In 534, they likewise subjected the Burgundians; and all Switzerland became a portion of the Frankish empire. The country, however, retained its ancient constitution; the Romans and old inhabitants were governed by Roman, the Alemanni by Alemanic laws; and each of the other nations by its peculiar code. The Christian religion was restored anew, and the desolated fields were again brought under cultivation. On the partition of the empire of the Franks among the Merovingians, Switzerland was divided between two sovereigns; one reigned over Alemannian, and the other over Burgundian Switzerland, or Little Burgundy. Pepin reunited the whole country, and Charlemagne encouraged the arts and sciences in Helvetia. Under his feeble successors, the counts became more and more independent of the royal authority, and finally made the possession of their *gaus* hereditary. One of them (Rodolph) established, in 888, the new kingdom of Burgundy, between the Reuss and the Jura. Nine years previously, Boso had established the kingdom of Arles, in the territory between the Jura and the Rhone. Thirty years afterwards, the two Burgundian kingdoms were united. The counts in the other part of Switzerland were still nominally subject to German kings; but they conducted themselves as princes, assumed the name of their castles, and compelled the free inhabitants of their *gaus* to acknowledge them as their lords. Hence arose a multitude of independent and complicated governments, whose chiefs were engaged in continual feuds with each other.

War was the business of the nobles, and misery the fate of the people in the distracted land. The emperor Conrad, therefore, set a duke over the counts in Alemannia in 911. But the emperors of the Saxon house were the first who compelled the dukes, counts and bishops, in Switzerland, to respect their authority.

After the death of Rodolph III., the fifth and last king of Burgundy (1032), the emperor Conrad II. reunited Burgundian Switzerland with Alemannia, which belonged to the German empire. But under Henry IV., grandson of Conrad II., the royal authority in Switzerland was again overthrown. The country people became more secure; the feuds among the nobility flourished; Geneva and Lausanne, among the Romanic, and Zurich and Basle among the German cities, became thriving towns. The families of Savoy, Kyburg, and Hapsburg, were the most powerful among the noble families. Many nobles went, about this time, to Palestine; and thus the country was delivered from their oppression. After the death of Berthold V., last duke of Zahringen, in 1218, Alemannia again came into possession of the emperor. His hereditary estates in the Uchtland and in Little Burgundy, passed by his sister Agnes, to the house of Kyburg.

From this time, the Hapsburgs in northern Helvetia, and the counts of Savoy in the south-west, grew more and more powerful. The emperor appointed some nobleman as governor of each city, or community, which was not under a count, to collect the public revenue, and to punish violations of the public peace. The German kings were no longer able to afford protection; might gave right, and the boldest became the mightiest. Several inferior lords, and several places, therefore, sought the protection of Hapsburg or Savoy. Zurich, Berne, Basle and Soleure, the districts of Uri, Schweitz and Underwalden, gradually acquired the seigneurial rights from the emperors by purchase or by grant, and assumed the name of imperial cities or imperial districts. They were more prosperous and powerful than the nobility, who lived in their solitary castles, at enmity with each other. Even the crusades, by promoting commerce, improved the already flourishing condition of the cities, as a part of the troops, arms, provisions, &c., were transmitted to Italy through the passes of the Alps. The crusaders brought back new inventions in the arts, new kinds of fruits, &c. The gold and silk manufactures of the Italians and eastern nations were imitated in Switzerland; refinement took the place of rudeness, and poetry became the favourite amusement of the nobles. The cities now formed alliance for their mutual protection against the rapacity of the nobles, and demolished many castles from which they exercised their oppression upon the peaceful merchants.

At the end of the thirteenth century, Rodolph of Hapsburg, who, in 1264, had inherited the estates of his uncle Hartmann, count of Kyburg, became more powerful than the old lords of the soil. As king and emperor of Germany, he held a court at Helvetia; but he did not abuse his power to reduce the freemen to vassalage. His ambitious sons, however, Rodolph and Albert, encroached upon the rights of the Swiss. Albert, in particular, who succeeded to the imperial dignity in 1298, by his tyranny and obstinacy gave rise to the first confederacy of the Swiss cantons. On the night of November 7, 1307, thirty-three brave countrymen met at Grutlin, a solitary spot on the lake of Lucerne. Fürst of Uri, Stauffacher of Schweitz, and Melchthal of Underwalden, were the leaders on this occasion. All swore to maintain their ancient independence. The three Waldstadte, or forest-towns (as these cantons were called), accordingly rose, deposed the Austrian governors, and destroyed the castles built to overawe the country. Henry VII., the successor of Albert on the German throne, confirmed to the forest-towns the rights of which Albert had endeavoured to rob them. The house of Austria still contended obstinately for its lost privileges. But the warlike spirit

of the people fostered a love of conquest and plunder, and mutual hatred kindled civil wars between neighbouring cantons; foreign powers sought the aid of the confederates in their contests. In 1424, the people of the Grey League established their independence, and were soon after joined by those of the other two leagues.

The emperor Frederic III. then called a French army into Switzerland to protect his family estates. The Swiss made a second Thermopylæ of the church-yard of St. Jacob at Basle, where 1600 of them withstood 20,000 French under the dauphin Louis, (August 26, 1444.) They next provoked Charles the Bold of Burgundy, who marched into their country, but was defeated at Granson, Murten, or Morat, and Nancy, in 1477. The confederates themselves aspired to conquest, the people being fired by the desire of plunder, and the nobles by warlike ambition. In 1460, they wrested Thurga from Austria; and from 1436 to 1450, Zurich, Schweitz and Glarus contended for Toggenburg, till Berne decided the dispute in favour of Schweitz. The confederated cantons from this time bore the name of the Swiss confederacy in foreign countries. In 1481, Friburg and Soleure entered the confederacy. The emperor Maximilian I. now determined to force the Swiss to join the Suabian league, and submit to the court of the imperial chamber. But they suspected Germany on account of Austria, and joined the Grisons. Hence arose the Suabian war, which was concluded after the Swiss had gained six victories over the Germans, by the peace of Basle, in 1499. Basle, Schaffhausen, and Appenzell, were afterwards admitted into the confederacy. But the country and people were disturbed by domestic and foreign wars.

In the Milanese war of 1512, the Swiss conquered the Valteline and Chiavenna, and obtained from Milan the Italian bailliages, which form at present the canton of Tessin. They fought on foreign soil, now for, now against, Milan; at one time for France, and at another time against her, till after the great battle of Marignano, gained by Francis I., in 1515, they concluded a perpetual peace with France at Friburg, in 1516, which was followed, in 1521, by the first formal alliance with that kingdom. About this time the work of the reformation began in Switzerland. Zuinglius, in 1518, preached against indulgences, as Luther had done in 1517. Even as early as 1516, he had attacked pilgrimages, and the invocation of the Virgin Mary; and in 1517, with the knowledge of his patron, the abbot of Einsiedeln, several nuns abandoned the monastic life. His removal from Einsiedeln to Zurich, in 1518, gave him courage to speak more openly, as Luther had, meanwhile, appeared in the cause of reform. But when the principles of the reformation were diffused through Zurich, Berne, Schaffhausen, Basle (by the labours of Œcolampadius), St. Gall, Muhlhausen, and Bienne, religious jealousy separated the reformed and the catholic cantons. In Glarus, Appenzell, and the Grisons, the people were divided between the two confessions. Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, Zug, Friburg, Soleure, adhered to the ancient faith; as did likewise the Valais and the Italian bailiwicks. Fanaticism kindled a civil war. The Schweitzers burnt a protestant preacher of Zurich. Two Swiss armies, nearly 30,000 strong, awaited the signal for civil war, when a better spirit suddenly prevailed, and the first religious peace was concluded, in 1529.

It was agreed that the majority of votes in the communities should decide all questions relating to changes of faith. But the rapid progress of the reformation again provoked the catholic cantons to war; and the troops of Zurich were routed at Cappel (1531), where Zuinglius fell, and at the mountain of Zug. After the second public peace, the catholic religion was restored in Soleure and the common provinces. In the meantime, Savoy, which had long possessed episcopal and seigneurial rights in Geneva, reduced the city to entire submission. But the oppressive

manner in which the ducal authority was exercised, led Geneva, in 1525, to join Berne and Friburg. The duke was forced to yield. Berne and Geneva concluded the perpetual league of 1531, and Berne gained posession of the Pays de Vaud. At the same time, the reformed doctrines were propagated from Geneva by Calvin. By the peace of Lausanne, in 1564, Savoy first renounced her claims upon the Pays de Vaud, and was thus driven from Helvetia, as Neuburg had been before. About this time (1555), Berne and Friburg divided between themselves the territories of the counts of Gruyere, so that, in all Helvetia, no great family of the ancient nobles retained its patrimonial estates, except that of Henburg. The Swiss, however, were distracted by religious and political controversies. Aristocracy and democracy struggled for the superiority, and the intrigues of Spain filled the people of the Valteline (1617–21) with a spirit of fanaticism. In foreign, and especially in the French service, the Swiss adopted foreign manners: they sold their blood to foreign masters; and the ancient Swiss purity and simplicity retired to the remote vallies of the higher Alps. At the same time, the connection of the confederacy with the German empire became less and less close, while the cantons obtained the confirmation of their rights from the emperor Maximilian II. But the influence of France soon became predominant, and Rome swayed the minds of its adherents by means of Jesuit colleges at Lucerne and Friburg; and particularly through the papal nuncio at Lucerne. In the thirty years' war, the confederates maintained a prudent neutrality; and, by the peace of Westphalia (1648), the complete separation of Switzerland from the German empire was at length solemnly acknowledged.

In 1663, France renewed her alliance with the Swiss, and asserted that they had no right to form alliances with other powers. The conquest of the Franche Comté, in 1674, and the siege of Rheinfeld, in 1678, by the French, together with the erection of the fortress of Huningen, in 1769, excited the apprehensions of the Swiss. They, however, happily maintained their neutrality, even in the war of the Spanish succession. During the persecution of the protestants in France, to whom they readily gave an asylum and pecuniary aid, they paid as little regard to the remonstrances of Louis, who viewed the reformers as rebels, as he did to the intercession of the protestant Swiss cantons in favour of their brethren in the faith. The Swiss had little influence in foreign politics during the eighteenth century; and, until towards its close, they suffered little from foreign interference. This tranquillity, which, however, was often interupted by internal dissensions, was alike favourable to the progress of commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, and to the arts and sciences. In almost every department of human knowledge, the Swiss of the eighteenth century, both at home and abroad, acquired distinguished reputation, as the names of Haller, Bonnet, Bernouli, J. J. Rousseau, Lavater, Bodmer, Breitinger, Gessner, Sulzer, Hirzel, Fuseli, Hottinger, John von Muller, Pestalozzi, and many others, bear witness.

The people of the democratic cantons enjoyed an almost unlimited freedom, and took a large share in the affairs of government. Those places which were under the general protection of the whole confederacy, were not burthened by excessive taxes; they enjoyed a high degree of civil freedom, and numerous municipal rights. The larger cantons, as Berne and Zurich, in which the government was administered by the capitals, or by a body of citizens, who enjoyed many peculiar privileges, were also in a flourishing condition. There were no oppressive taxes; but almost everywhere the government was conscientiously conducted; the administration of justice was cheap and simple, and benevolent institutions were numerous. Nothwithstanding all these favourable circumstances, internal dissensions still continued, and new troubles arose in

1790, which shook the political fabric; blood was often spilt, and punishment rendered necessary.

Although the Swiss had at first firmly maintained their neutrality in the wars of the French revolution, French power and intrigue gradually deprived them of their former constitution; and, after incorporating several portions of Switzerland with the French and Cisalpine republics, the French converted the Swiss confederacy into the Helvetic republic, one and indivisible, under an executive directory of five persons. The legislative power was divided between a senate and a great council, to which each of the fourteen cantons elected twelve members. It was in vain that some of the democratic cantons attempted to prevent this revolution. They were speedily overpowered. But the weak and corrupt men who were raised to power, soon made the new offices contemptible. Aloys Reding, a man of enterprising spirit, whose family were celebrated in the annals of his country, formed the plan of overthrowing the central government. Underwalden, Schweitz, Zurich, Glarus, Appenzell, and the Grisons wished to restore the federal constitution; and Reding imagined that Bonaparte himself, who had just withdrawn the French troops from Switzerland, would favour his plan. The smaller cantons, in their diet at Schweitz (August 6, 1802), declared that they would not accept the constitution which had been forced upon them, and that they preferred a federal government. The consequence was a civil war. Zurich was besieged to no purpose by the troops of the Helvetic republic, against whom its gates were shut. Rodolph von Erlach and General Auf der Maur, at the head of the insurgents, occupied Berne and Friburg. The Helvetic government retired to Lausanne. Aloys Reding now summoned a general assembly, which was held at Schweitz, September 27. Three days after, the first consul of France offered to the cantons his mediation; but the small cantons, guided by Reding and Hirzel of Zurich, persevered in their opposition. Twelve thousand French troops entered Switzerland, under Ney, and the diet separated. Reding and Hirzel were imprisoned. In December, both parties sent deputies of the eighteen cantons to Paris, to whom Bonaparte transmitted by Barthélémy, Fouché, and Roderer, the act of mediation of February 19, 1803, restoring the cantonal system, but granting freedom to the former subjects of the cantons.

The cantons were now nineteen in number:—Aargau, Appenzell, Basle, Berne, Friburg, Glarus, Grisons, Lucerne, St. Gall, Schaffhausen, Schweitz, Soleure, Tessin, Thurgan, Underwalden, Uri, Pays de Vaud, Zug, and Zurich. The republic of Valais was changed by a decree of Napoleon, in 1810, into a French department; and as early as 1806, he granted Neufchatel (which had been ceded to him by Prussia, but which was under the protection of Switzerland), to General Berthier, as a sovereign principality. Napoleon assumed the title of "mediator of Switzerland; and the military service required of the Swiss became oppressive. They were obliged to adopt the continental system, and the canton of Tessin was garrisoned by French troops. In 1818, when the theatre of war approached Switzerland, France permitted the Swiss to maintain their neutrality; but the allies expressed themselves ambiguously, and large armies were soon marching through the country, in various directions, to France. Their arrival excited a fermentation in many quarters. The act of mediation was annulled, December 29, 1813, at Zurich, and several cantons, of which Berne was the first, laboured to revive their old constitutions. Through the influence of the allied monarchs, the cantons were finally prevailed on to assemble a general council; but revolutions and counter-revolutions agitated several of the cantons. A diet was at length assembled at Zurich, and new articles of confederation were agreed upon by the cantons, September 18th, 1814. They resembled

the old federal pact in many respects. This confederacy was acknowledged by the congress of Vienna. The bishopric of Basle, with Bienne, was given to the canton of Berne, excepting the district of Birseck, which fell to Basle, and a small portion which fell to Neufchatel. The former relations of the latter place to Prussia were restored, and, with Geneva and the Valais, it joined the confederacy of the Swiss cantons, making their number twenty-two.

August 7, 1815, the compact of Zurich was publicly and solemnly adopted, after the deputies of the confederacy at Vienna had given in their accession to the acts of the congress of Vienna, so far as they related to Switzerland. Soon after, Switzerland became a member of the holy alliance. But the political state of the Swiss cantons as settled by the congress of Vienna, and jealously watched by the holy alliance, gave rise to much disaffection in the great body of the people. In this state of things, the general demand for reform, in the electoral assemblies of Tessin (one of the small cantons), compelled the council, June, 1830, to yield to the public voice, and establish a system of direct elections, and of publicity of proceedings in the great council, and to guarantee the liberty of the press, and the inviolability of persons, as parts of the constitution. This event, and the French revolution of July, 1830, set the example for general risings in various parts of the country. In the new cantons, the popular demands were generally so readily complied with as to prevent any serious disturbances, and the democratic cantons took hardly any part in the troubles; but in the old aristocratic cantons, the opposition was stronger and more systematic. Still, as many of the town's-people were favourable to more popular institutions, the governments, even in these cantons, generally yielded, with little opposition, to the wishes of the citizens; and in Friburg, Berne, Lucerne, Soleure, Schaffhausen, the revision of the constitution, the abolition of privileges, the extension of the right of election, abolition of censorship of the press, &c., were among the concessions to popular rights. In Basle alone, where the peasantry are more ignorant and rude than in the other cantons, the insurgents were not satisfied with the concessions; and a second insurrection, in the summer of 1831, was not put down without bloodshed. The ordinary session of the diet took place at Lucerne, July 4, 1831, and the common concerns of the confederacy, both in its foreign and domestic relations, were found to be in a satisfactory condition. But towards the close of 1831, the canton of Neufchatel was disturbed by risings of some portions of the population, who renounced the authority of Prussia, and demanded a new constitution. The insurgents were put down; and from that time to the present there has been nothing to disturb the general tranquillity of the country, although some ebullitions of national feeling were apparent on two or three particular occasions.

In conseqence of the revolutions that had taken place in Poland, Germany, Italy, and Sardinia, a number of refugees from those countries found an asylum in Switzerland, where they were received with kindness, and public subscriptions made for their support. In 1834, a considerable body of these emigrants formed a conspiracy against the Sardinian government, and invaded Savoy, in the hope of exciting an insurrection there. But in this attempt they were foiled, and driven back with considerable loss. The governments of Sardinia, Prussia, and Austria hereupon demanded their expulsion from Switzerland; but the Swiss, though greatly annoyed at having been drawn into a quarrel through the conduct of those whom they had generously protected, refused to comply with the demand, and it was at length agreed that they should not in future harbour any foreigners detected in belonging to secret societies, or concerned in disturbing the peace of other countries. In order, therefore, to appease the offended powers, and at the same time to keep faith with

those individuals who now relied on their protection, an arrangement was effected with the king of the French for granting them passports to pass through his dominions, on their route to America, or any other country to which they chose to resort. Another instance occurred in 1838, on the return of prince Louis Bonaparte from America, whither he had been sent about two years before for attempting to raise a rebellion at Strasburg. On his return to Europe he made choice of Switzerland for his residence, and possessed an estate in the canton of Thurgau. The proximity of Switzerland to France was, however, a reason for Louis Philippe to demand his expulsion, which being refused by the Swiss, there was every reason to expect a war between them and the French, had not Louis voluntarily departed for England, and thereby prevented a rupture which might have been fatal to Swiss independence.

THE HISTORY OF ITALY.

This delightful region of Europe, as celebrated for its genial climate, as for being the seat of that mighty empire which of old gave laws to the world; this classic land, where all that is noble in art and science have flourished; though shorn of its former glories, still claims the traveller's homage and the attention of the historian. Before Rome had absorbed all the vital power of Italy, this country was thickly inhabited, and for the most part, by civilized nations. In the north of Italy alone, which offered the longest resistance to the Romans, dwelt the Gauls. Farther south, on the Arno and the Tiber, a number of small tribes, such as the Etrusci, the Samnites, and Latins, endeavoured to find safety by forming confederacies. Less closely united, and often hostile to each other, were the Greek colonies of Lower Italy, called *Magna Grecia*.

Italy, in the middle ages, was divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Italy. The first division comprehended all the states situated in the vicinity of the Po; the second extended between the former and the kingdom of Naples; which formed the third. At present, it is divided into the following independent states, which are not connected with each other by any political tie:—1. The kingdom of Sardinia; 2. Lombardy, or Austrian Italy (including Milan, and Venice); 3. the duchy of Parma; 4. the duchy of Modena (including Massa); 5. the grand-duchy of Tuscany; 6. the duchy of Lucca; 7. the republic of San Marino; 8. the Papal dominions; 9. the kingdom of Naples, or the two Sicilies. *Italia* did not become the general name of this country until the age of Augustus. It had been early imperfectly known to the Greeks under the name of *Hesperia*. *Ausonia*, *Saturnia*, and *Œnotria*, were also names applied by them to the southern part, with which alone they were at first acquainted. The name *Italia* was at first merely a partial name for the southern extremity, until it was gradually extended to the whole country.

The modern history of Italy begins with the fall of the western empire. Romulus Augustus, its last feeble emperor, was dethroned by his German guards. Odoacer, their leader, assumed the title of *king of Italy*, and thus this country was separated from the Roman empire. But this valiant barbarian could not communicate a spirit of independence and energy to the degenerate Italians; nothing but amalgamation with a people

in a state of nature could effect their regeneration. Such a people already stood on the frontiers of Italy. Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, instigated by Zeno, emperor of the East, overthrew the kingdom of Odoacer, in 493, and reduced all Italy. His Goths spread from the Alps to Sicily. In the lagoons of the Adriatic alone, some fugitives, who had fled from the devastations of Attila, maintained their freedom. Theodoric, who combined the vigour of the north with the cultivation of the south, is justly termed the *Great*. But the energy of his people soon yielded to Roman corruption. Totila, for ten years, contested in vain the almost completed conquest with the military skill of Belisarius. He fell in battle in 552; after which Italy was annexed to the eastern empire, under an exarch, who resided at Ravenna. But the first exarch, Narses, sunk under the intrigues of the Byzantine court, and his successor neglected the defence of the passes of the Alps. The country was then invaded by the Lombards, who, under Alboin, their chief or king, conquered the territory which afterwards received its name from them.

The kingdom of the Lombards included Upper Italy, Tuscany, and Umbria. Alboin also created the duchy of Benevento, in Lower Italy, with which he invested Zotto. The whole of Lombardian Italy was divided into thirty great fiefs, under dukes, counts, &c., which soon became hereditary. Together with the new kingdom, the confederation of the fugitives in the lagoons still subsisted in undisturbed freedom. The islanders, by the election of their first doge, Anafesto, in 697, established a central government, and the republic of Venice was founded. Ravenna, the seat of the exarch, with Romagna, the Pentapolis, or the five maritime cities (Rimini, Pisaro, Fano, Sanigaglia, and Ancona), and almost all the coasts of Lower Italy, where Amalfi and Gaeta had dukes of their own, of the Greek nation, remained unconquered, together with Sicily and the capital, Rome, which was governed by a patrician in the name of the emperor. The slight dependence on the court of Byzantium disappeared almost entirely in the beginning of the eighth century, when Leo, the Isaurian, exasperated the orthodox Italians by his attack of images. The cities expelled his officers, and chose consuls and a senate, as in ancient times. Rome acknowledged, not indeed the power, but a certain paternal authority of its bishops, even in secular affairs, in consequence of the respect which their holiness procured them. The popes, in their efforts to defend the freedom of Rome against the Lombards, forsaken by the court of Byzantium, generally had recourse to the Frankish kings.

In consideration of the aid expected against king Astolphus, pope Stephen III., in 753, not only anointed Pepin, who, in the preceding year, had been made king of the Franks, with the approbation of pope Zacharias, but with the assent of the municipality of Rome, appointed him patrician, as the imperial governor had hitherto been denominated. Charlemagne made war upon Desiderius, the king of the Lombards, in defence of the Roman church, took him prisoner in his capital, Pavia, united his empire with the Frankish monarchy, and eventually gave Italy a king in his son Pepin. But his attempts against the duchy of Benevento, the independence of which was maintained by duke Arichis, against the republics in Lower Italy, where Naples, Amalfii, and Gaeta, in particular, had become rich by navigation and commerce, were unsuccessful. The exarchate, with the five cities, had already been presented to the pope by Pepin, in 756, and Charlemagne confirmed the gift; but the secular supremacy of the popes was not completed until the pontificate of Innocent III., about the year 1200. Their rank, however, among the ecclesiastics of the west, and the temporal power now acquired, gave them an ascendency over the clergy and laity in Europe, which they failed not to improve until they were acknowledged as the infallible heads of the church.

Leo III. bestowed on the king of the Franks, on Christmas day, A. D. 800, the imperial crown of the west, which needed a Charlemagne to raise it from nothing. But dislike to the Franks, whose conquest was looked upon as a new invasion of barbarians, united the free cities, Rome excepted, more closely to the eastern empire. Even during the lifetime of Charlemagne, Frankish Italy was given to his grandson Bernard; who, however, having attempted to become independent of his uncle, Louis the Debonnaire, was deprived of the crown, and had his eyes torn out. Italy now remained a constituent part of the Frankish monarchy, till the partition of Verdun, which took place in 843; when it was allotted, with the imperial dignity, and what was afterward called Lorraine, to Lothaire I., eldest son of Louis. Lothaire left the government to his son Louis II., the most estimable of the Italian princes of the Carlovingian line. After his death, in 875, Italy became the apple of discord to the whole family. Charles the Bald, of France, first took possession of it; and after his death Carloman, king of Bavaria: who was succeeded, in 880, by his brother Charles the Fat, king of Suabia, who united the whole monarchy of the Franks for the last time. His dethronement, in 887, was the epoch of anarchy and civil war in Italy. Berengarius, duke of Friuli, and Guido, duke of Spoleto (besides the marquis of Ivrea, the only ones remaining of the thirty great vassals) disputed the crown between them. Guido was crowned king and emperor, and after his death (894) his son Lambert. Arnold, the Carlovingian king of the Germans, enforced his claims to the royal and imperial crown of Italy (896) but, like most of his successors, was able to maintain them only during his residence in the country.

After the death of Lambert and Arnold, Louis, king of Lower Burgundy, became the competitor of Berengarius I.; and this bold and noble prince, although crowned king in 894, and emperor in 895, did not enjoy quiet till he had expelled the emperor Louis III., and vanquished another competitor, Rodolph, of Upper Burgundy; he was even then unable, on account of the feeble condition of the state, to defend the kingdom effectively against the invasions of the Saracens and the Hungarians. After the assassination of Berengarius, in 924, Rodolph II. relinquished his claims to Hugh, count of Provence, in exchange for that country. Hugh sought to strengthen the insecure throne of Italy by a bloody tyranny. His nephew, Berengarius, marquis of Ivrea, fled from his snares to Otho the Great, of Germany, assembled an army of fugitives, and returned and overthrew Hugh in 945, who was succeeded by his son Lothaire. Berengarius became his first counsellor. But, after the death of Lothaire, in 950, (poisoned, it was said, by Berengarius,) the latter wished to compel his widow—the beautiful Adelaide—contrary to her inclination, to marry his son. Escaping from the prison to which he had consigned her, she took refuge in the castle of Canossa, where she was besieged by Berengarius II. She now applied for aid to Otho I., king of Germany, who passed the Alps, liberated her, conquered Pavia, became king of the Franks and Lombards, and married Adelaide. To a prompt submission, and the cession of Friuli, (the key of Italy,) which Otho gave to his brother Henry, Berengarius was indebted for permission to reign as the vassal of Otho. But the nobles of Italy, preferring new complaints against him, ten years after, Otho returned in 961, deposed him, and led him prisoner to Bamberg; and, after having been himself crowned king of Italy with the iron crown, in 961, united this kingdom with the German. Otho gave the great imperial fiefs to Germans, and granted to the Italian cities privileges that were the foundation of a free constitution, for which they soon became ripe.

The growing wealth of the papal court, owing to the munificence of the French kings, which had promoted their influence on the government, so beneficial under Leo IV., and popes of a similar character, became, through the corruption of the Roman court, in the tenth century, the first

cause of its decline. The clergy and the people elected the popes according to the will of the consuls and a few patricians. Alberic of Camerino, and his son Octavian, were absolute masters of Rome, and the latter was pope, under the name of John XII., when twenty years of age. Otho the Great, whom he had crowned emperor in Rome, in 962, deposed him and chose Leo VIII. in his stead; but the people, jealous of their right of election, chose Benedict V. From this time, the popes, instead of ruling the people of Rome, became dependent upon them. In Lower Italy, the republics of Naples, Gaeta, and Amalfi, still defended their independence against the Lombard duchy of Benevento, with the more ease, since the duchy had been divided, in 839, between Siconolphus of Salerno and Radelghisius of Benevento, and subsequently among a great number; and since, with the dukes, they had had a common enemy in the Saracens, who had been previously invited over from Sicily by both parties (about 830) as auxiliaries against each other, but who had settled and maintained themselves in Apulia. The emperors Louis II. and Basilius Macedo had, with combined forces, broken the power of the Mussulmans; the former was, nevertheless, unable to maintain himself in Lower Italy, but the Greeks, on the contrary, gained a firmer footing, and formed, of the regions taken from the Saracens, a separate province, called the Thema of Lombardy, which continued under their dominion, though without prejudice to the liberty of the republics, upward of a hundred years, being governed by a captain, or governor-general, at Bari. Otho the Great himself did not succeed in driving them altogether from Italy. The marriage of his son, Otho II., with the Greek princess Theophania, put an end to his exertions for this purpose, as did the unfortunate battle at Basentello, to the similar attempts renewed by Otho II. (980.)

In opposition to the designs of the count of Tusculum, who wished to supplant the absent emperor at Rome, a noble Roman, the consul Crescentius, in 980, attempted to govern Rome under the semblance of her ancient liberty. Otho II., king since 973, occupied with his projects of conquest in Lower Italy, did not interfere with this administration, which became formidable to the vicious popes Boniface VII. and John XV. But when Otho III., who had reigned in Germany since 983, raised his kinsman Gregory V. to the popedom, Crescentius caused the latter to be expelled, and John XVI., a Greek, to be elected by the people. He also endeavoured to place Rome again under the nominal supremacy of the Byzantine empire. Otho, however, reinstated Gregory, besieged Crescentius in the castle of St. Angelo, took him prisoner, and caused him to be beheaded, with twelve other noble Romans, A. D. 998. But the Romans again threw off their allegiance to the emperor, and yielded only to force. On the death of Otho III. (1002) the Italians considered their connection with the German empire as dissolved. Harduin, marquis of Ivrea, was elected king, and crowned at Pavia. This was a sufficient motive for Milan, the enemy of Pavia, to declare for Henry II. of Germany. A civil war ensued, in which every city, relying on its walls, took a greater or less part. Henry was chosen king of Italy by the nobles assembled in Pavia; but disturbances arose, in which a part of the city was destroyed by fire (A. D. 1004.) Not till after Harduin's death, which occurred in 1015, was Henry recognized as king by all Lombardy. He was succeeded by Conrad II. At a diet held at Roncaglia, near Placenza, in 1037, Conrad made the fiefs hereditary by a fundamental law of the empire, and endeavoured to give stability and tranquility to the state, but without success. The cities, which were daily becoming more powerful, and the bishops, were engaged in continual quarrels with the nobility, and the nobility with their vassals, which could not be repressed.

Republican Rome, under the influence of the family of Crescentius, could be reduced to obedience neither by Henry II. and Conrad II., nor

by the popes. When Henry III., the son and successor of Conrad, entered Italy in 1040, he found three popes in Rome, all of whom he deposed, appointed in their stead Clement II., and ever after filled the papal chair, by his own authority, with virtuous German ecclesiastics. This reform gave the popes new consequence, which afterward became fatal to his successor. Henry died in 1056. During the minority of his son, Henry IV., the policy of the popes, directed by Hildebrand (afterward Gregory VII.) succeeded in creating an opposition, which soon became formidable to the secular power. The Normans also contributed to this result. As early as 1016, warriors from Normandy had established themselves in Calabria and Apulia. Allies, sometimes of the Lombards, sometimes of the republics, sometimes of the Greeks against each other and against the Saracens, they constantly became more powerful by petty wars. The great preparation of Leo IX. for their expulsion terminated in his defeat and capture. (1053.) On the other hand, Nicolas II. united with the Norman princes, and, in 1059, invested Robert Guiscard with all the territories conquered by him in Lower Italy. From that time, the pope, in his conflicts with the imperial power, relied on the support of his faithful vassal, the duke of Apulia and Calabria, to which Sicily was soon added. While the small states of the south were thus united into one large one, the kingdom in the north was dissolved into smaller states. The Lombard cities were laying the foundation of their future importance. Venice, Genoa, and Pisa were already powerful.

In the small republics of the north of Italy, the government was, in most cases, divided between the consuls, the lesser council, the great council, and the popular assembly. Petty feuds developed their youthful energies. Such were those that terminated with the destruction of Lodi by Milan, in 1111, and the ten years' siege of Como, by the forces of all the Lombard cities, which lasted from 1118 to 1128. The subjugation of this city rendered Milan the first power in Lombardy, and most of the neighbouring cities were her allies. Others formed a counter alliance with her antagonist, Pavia. Disputes between Milan and Cremona were the occasion of the first war between the two unions (1129) to which the contest of Lothaire II. and Conrad of Hohenstaufen for the crown, soon gave another direction. This was the origin of the Ghibelines (favourers of the emperor) and the Guelfs (the adherents of the family of Guelfs, and in general the party of the popes.)

In Rome the love of liberty, restrained by Gregory VII., rose in proportion as his successors ruled with less energy. The schisms between Gelasius II. and Gregory VIII., Innocent II. and Anacletus II., renewed the hopes of the Romans. Arnold of Brescia, formerly proscribed for his violent attacks against the luxury of the clergy in that century, was their leader. After eight years, Adrian IV. succeeded in effecting his execution. Frederic I., of Hohenstaufen (called Barbarossa) crossed the Alps six times, in order to defend his possessions in Italy against the republicanism of the Lombard cities. Embracing the cause of Pavia, as the weaker, he devastated the territory of Milan, destroyed Tortona, and was crowned in Pavia and Rome. In 1158, he reduced Milan, demolished the fortifications of Placenza, and held a diet at Roncaglia, where he extended the imperial prerogatives conformably with the Justinian code, gave the cities chief magistrates, and proclaimed a general peace. His rigour having excited a new rebellion, he reduced Cremona to ashes, compelled Milan to submission, and, having driven out the inhabitants, demolished the fortifications.

When the emperor entered Italy in 1163, without an army, the cities concluded a union for maintaining their freedom, which, in 1167, was converted into the Lombard confederacy. The confederates restored Milan, and to hold in check the Ghibeline city of Pavia, built a new city, called,

in honour of the pope, Alessandria. Neither Frederic's governor, Christian, archbishop of Mentz, nor he himself, could effect anything against the confederacy; the former failed before Ancona, with all the power of Ghibeline Tuscany; and the latter before Alessandria. He was also defeated by Milan, at Legnano, in 1176. He then concluded a concordat with Alexander III., and a truce with the cities at Venice, and a peace, which secured their independence, at Constantinople (1183.) The republics retained the podestà (foreign noblemen, now elected by themselves) as judges and generals. As formerly, all were to take the oath of fealty and allegiance to the emperor. But, instead of strengthening their league into a permanent confederacy (the only safety for Italy,) they were soon split into new factions, when the designs of the Hohenstaufen on the throne of Sicily drew Frederic and Henry VI. from Lombardy. During the minority of Frederic II., and the disputes for the succession to the German throne, Innocent III., who was Frederic's guardian, succeeded in re-establishing the secular authority of the holy see in Rome, and the surrounding country, and in enforcing its claims to the donations of Charlemagne and Matilda. He also brought over almost all Tuscany, except Pisa, to the party of the Guelfs. A blind hereditary hatred, rather than a zeal for the cause, inspired the parties; for when Otho IV. ascended the imperial throne, the Guelfs became his party, and the Ghibelines the pope's; but the reversion of the imperial throne to the house of Hohenstaufen, in the person of Frederic II., soon restored the ancient relations.

In Florence, this party spirit gave pretence to the disputes of the Buondelmonti and Donati with the Uberti and Amadei, originating in private causes; and most cities were thus internally divided into Guelfs and Ghibelines. The Guelf cities of Lombardy renewed the Lombard confederacy, in 1226. The Dominican, John of Vicenza, attacked these civil wars: and the assembly at Paquara seemed to crown his exertions with success; but his attempt to obtain secular power in Vicenza occasioned his fall. After the emperor had returned from his crusade, in 1230, he waged war, with varying success, against the cities and against Gregory IX., heedless of the excommunication; while Ezzelin da Romano, under the pretence of favouring the Ghibelines, established, by every kind of violence, his own power in Padua, Verona, Vicenza, and the neighbourhood. The plan of Gregory IX. to depose Frederic, was successfully executed by Innocent IV., in the council of Lyons, (1245.) This completely weakened the Ghibeline party, which was already nearly undermined by the intrigues of the mendicant orders. The Bolognese united all the cities of Italy in a Guelf league, and, in the battle of the Panaro, in 1249, took Enzius prisoner, whom they never released. In the Trevisan Mark alone, the Ghibelines possessed the supremacy, by means of Ezzelin, till he fell before a crusade of all the Guelfs against him, in 1255. But these contests were fatal to liberty; the house Della Scala followed that of Romano in the dominion; and Milan itself, with a great part of Lombardy, found masters in the house of Della Torre. Tyrants everywhere arose; the maritime republics, and the republic of Tuscany alone remained free.

After Charles I. of Anjou had become, by the favour of the pope, king of Naples, senator of Rome, papal vicar of Tuscany, and had directed his ambition to the throne of Italy, (a policy in which his successors persevered,) the names of Guelfs and Ghibelines acquired a new signification. The former denoted the friends, the latter the enemies of the French. To these factions were added, in the republics, the parties of the nobility and the people, the latter of which was almost universally victorious. The honest exertions of Gregory X. (who died 1276) to establish peace, were of no avail; those of Nicolas III., who feared the preponderance of Charles, were more efficient; but Martin IV., servilely devoted to Charles,

destroyed everything which had been effected, and persecuted the Ghibelines with new animosity. A different interest—that of trade and navigation—impelled the maritime republics to mutual wars. The Genoese assisted Michael Palæologus, in 1261, to recover Constantinople from the Venetians, and received in return Chios; at Meloria, they annihilated the navy of the Pisans, and completed their dominion of the sea by a victory over the Venetians at Curzola, which took place in 1298. Florence rendered its democracy complete by the punishment of all the nobles, and strengthened the Guelf party by wise measures; but a new schism soon divided the Guelfs in Florence and all Tuscany into two factions—the Neri (Black) and Bianchi (White). The latter were almost all expelled by the intrigues of Boniface VIII., and joined the Ghibelines. In Lombardy, freedom seemed to have expired, when the people, weary of the everlasting feuds of their tyrants, rose in most of the cities, and expelled them.

Henry VII., the first emperor who had appeared in Italy for sixty years (1310) restored the princes to their cities, and found general submission to his requisitions, peace among the parties, and homage to the empire. Florence alone undertook the glorious part which she so nobly sustained for two centuries, as the guardian of Italian freedom; she chose Robert of Naples, the enemy of Henry, her protector for five years, and remained free while the other parts of the kingdom were divided into factions and destroyed by intestine wars. In 1330, John, king of Bohemia, suddenly entered Italy. Invited by the inhabitants of Brescia, favoured by the pope, elected lord of Lucca, everywhere acting the part of a mediator and peacemaker, he could have succeeded in establishing the power at which he aimed, had he not been opposed by the Florentines. On his second expedition to Italy, in 1333, Azzo Visconti, Mastino della Scala, and Robert of Naples, united against him and his ally, the papal legate, Bertrand of Poiet, who aspired to the dominion of Bologna. After the downfall of both, in 1334, when the Pepoli began to rule in Bologna, Mastino della Scala became master of half Lombardy. Florence led the opposition against him, and excited a war of the league, in which it gained nothing but the security of its liberty.

In Rome, Cola Rienzi, in 1347, sought to restore order and tranquility; he was appointed tribune of the people, but was forced, after seven months, to yield to the nobility. Having returned, after seven years of banishment, with the legate-cardinal Albornoze, he ruled again a short time, and at length was murdered in an insurrection. The Genoese, tired of the perpetual disputes of the Ghibeline Spinolas and Dorias with the Guelf Grimaldi and Fieschi, banished all these families in 1339, and made Simon Bocanegra their first doge. In 1347 Italy suffered by a terrible famine, and a still more terrible pestilence in the year following, which swept away two-thirds of the population. No less terrible was the scourge of the *bande* (banditti), or large companies of soldiers who, after every peace, continued the war on their own account, ravaging the whole country with fire and sword.

Pope Innocent VI. succeeded in conquering the whole of the states of the church, by means of the cardinal-legate, Egidius Albornoze (1354-60); but, reduced to extremities by the oppressions of the legates, and encouraged by Florence, the conquered cities revolted in 1375. The cruelties of cardinal Robert, of Geneva, (afterward Clement VII.,) and of his band of soldiers from Bretagne, produced only a partial subjugation; and the great schism, the freedom of these cities, or rather the power of their petty tyrants, was fully confirmed. The Visconti, meanwhile, persisting in their schemes of conquest, arrayed the whole strength of Italy in opposition to them, and caused the old factions of Guelfs and Ghibelines soon to be forgotten in the impending danger. Genoa submitted to John Vis-

sonti, who had purchased Bologna from the Pepoli in 1350: but his enterprise against Tuscany failed through the resistance of the confederated Tuscan republics. Another league against him was concluded by the Venetians with the petty tyrants of Lombardy. But the union of the Florentines with the Visconti against the papal legates, continued but a short time. In Florence, the Guelfs were divided into the parties of the Ricci and the Albizzi. The sedition of the Ciompi, to which this gave rise, was quelled by Michael di Lando, who had been elected gonfaloniere by themselves, in a way no less manly than disinterested. The Venetians, irritated with Carrara, on account of the assistance he had given the Genoese in the war at Chiozza in 1379, looked quietly on while John Galeazzo Visconti deprived the Della Scala and Carrara of their possessions; and Florence alone assisted the unfortunate princes. Francis Carrara made himself again master of Padua, in 1390, and maintained his advantages till he sunk under the enmity of the Venetians (in 1406), who, changing their policy, became henceforth, instead of the opponents, the rivals of the ambitious views of the Visconti.

In 1395, John Galeazzo obtained from the emperor Wenceslaus the investiture of Milan as a duchy, purchased Pisa (which his natural son Gabriel bargained away to Florence, 1405), from the tyrant Gerard of Appiano (who reserved only the principality of Piombino), and subjugated Sienna, Perugia, and Bologna; so that Florence, fearfully menaced, alone stood against him in the cause of liberty. On his death, in 1402, the prospect brightened, and during the minority of his sons, a great portion of his states were lost. When Ladislaus of Naples, taking advantage of the schism, made himself master of all the Ecclesiastical States, and threatened to conquer all Italy, Florence again alone dared to resist him. But this danger was transitory; the Visconti soon rose up again in opposition.

Duke Philip Maria reconquered all his states of Lombardy, by means of the great Carmagnola (1416–20). Genoa also, which was sometimes given up, in nominal freedom, to stormy factions of the Fregosi, Adorni, Montalto, and Guarco, at other times was subject to France, or to the marquis of Montferrat, submitted to him in 1421. Florence subsequently entered into an alliance against him with the Venetians (1425); and by means of Carmagnola, who had now come over to them, they conquered the whole country as far as the Adda, and retained it in the peace of Ferrara (1428).

After Milan had been enfeebled by the Venetians and Florentines, and while Alphonso of Arragon was constantly disturbed in Naples, by the Anjou party, no dangerous predominance of power existed in Italy, though mutual jealousy still excited frequent wars, in which two parties among the Italian mercenary soldiers, the Bracheschi and the Sforzeschi, continued always hostile to each other, contrary to the custom of those mercenary bands. After the extinction of the Visconti, in 1447, Francis Sforza succeeded in gaining possession of the Milanese state. The Venetians, who aimed at territorial aggrandizement, having formed a connection with some princes against him, he found an ally in Florence, which, with a change of circumstances, wisely altered her policy. About this time, the family of the Medici attained to power by their wealth and talent. Milan, where the Sforza had established themselves; Venice, which possessed half of Lombardy; Florence, wisely managed by Lorenzo Medici; the states of the church, for the most part restored to the holy see; and Naples, which was incapable of employing its forces in direct attacks on other states, constituted, in the fifteenth century, the political balance of Italy, which, during the manifold feuds of these states, permitted no one to become dangerous to the independence of the rest, till 1494, when Charles VIII. of France entered Italy to conquer Naples, and Louis Moro Sforza played the part first of his ally, then of his enemy, while the pope

Alexander VI., eagerly sought the friendship of the French, to promote the exaltation of his son, Cæsar Borgia. A long succession of military contests now took place, which were chiefly excited by invasions from Germany, or by the efforts of party leaders at home to usurp power over the free cities; but we must pass by these, and merely observe that the Medici family ultimately succeeded in establishing their sway. The brief tranquility of Italy, however, was soon destined to be disturbed by the grasping ambition of the warlike pope, Julius II., who completed the subjugation of the states of the church, not, indeed, for a son or nephew, but in the name of the holy see. He concluded with Maximilian I., Ferdinand the Catholic, and Louis XII., the league of Cambray (1508), against the ambitious policy of the Venetians, who succeeded in dissolving the league which threatened them with destruction. The pope then formed a league with the Venetians themselves, Spain, and the Swiss, for the purpose of driving the French from Italy. This holy league did not, however, then attain its object, although Julius was little affected by the French and German council held at Pisa to depose him. Maximilian Sforza, who had re-acquired Milan, relinquished it without reserve to Francis I., in 1515; but the emperor Charles V. assumed it as a reverted fief of the empire, and conferred it on Francisco Sforza, brother of Maximilian, in 1520. This was the cause of violent wars, in which the efforts of Francis were always unsuccessful. He was taken prisoner at Pavia, and, with his other claims, was compelled to renounce those on Milan, which remained to Sforza, and after his death, was granted by Charles V. to his son Philip. The Medician popes Leo X. and Clement VII., were bent, for the most part, on the aggrandizement of their family. Charles V., to whom all Italy submitted after the battle of Pavia, frustrated, indeed, the attempts of Clement VII. to weaken his power, and conquered and pillaged Rome in 1527; but, being reconciled with the pope, he raised the Medici to princely authority.

Florence, incensed at the foolish conduct of Pietro towards France, had banished the Medici in 1494, but recalled them in 1512; and was compelled to take a station among the principalities, under Duke Alexander I. de Medici. Italian policy, of which Florence had hitherto been the soul, from this period is destitute of a common spirit, and the history of Italy is therefore destitute of a central point.

After the extinction of the male branch of the marquises of Montferrat, Charles V. gave this country to Gonzaga of Mantua. Maximilian II. subsequently raised Montferrat to a duchy. The Florentines failed (1537) in a new attempt to emancipate themselves, after the death of Duke Alexander, who fell by the hands of an assassin. Cosmo I. succeeded him in the government, by the influence of Charles V. Parma and Placenza, which Julius II. had conquered for the papal see, Paul III. erected into a duchy, 1545, which he gave to his natural son, Peter Alois Farnese, whose son Ottairo obtained the imperial investiture in 1556. Genoa, subject to the French since 1499, found a deliverer in Andrew Doria (1528). He founded the aristocracy, and the conspiracy of Fiesco (1547) failed to subvert him. In 1553, besides Milan, Charles V. conferred Naples on his son Philip II. By the peace of Chateau-Cambresis, in 1559, Philip II., and Henry II. of France, renounced all their claims to Piedmont, which was restored to its rightful sovereign, Duke Emanuel Philibert of Savoy, the brave Spanish general.

The legitimate male line of the house of Este became extinct in 1597, when the illegitimate Cæsario of Este obtained Modena and Reggio from the empire, and Ferrara was confiscated as a reverted fief by the holy see. In the second half of the sixteenth century, the prosperity of Italy was increased by a long peace, as much as the loss of its commerce allowed; Henry IV. of France having, by the treaty of Lyons, ceded Saluzzo, the

last French possession in Italy, to Savoy. The tranquility continued till the contests for the succession of Mantua and Montferrat, after the extinction of the Gonzaga family (1627). Misfortunes in Germany compelled Ferdinand II. to confer both countries, in 1631, as a fief on Charles of Nevers, the protégé of France, whose family remained in possession till the war of the Spanish succession. In the peace of Chierasco (1631), Richelieu's diplomacy acquired also Pignerol and Casale—strong points of support in case of new invasions of Italy, though he had to relinquish the latter, in 1637. By the extinction of the house Della Rovera, the duchy of Urbino, with which Julius II. had invested it, devolved, in 1631, to the papal see. In the second half of the seventeenth century, the peace of Italy was not interrupted, excepting by the attempts of Louis XIV. on Savoy and Piedmont, and appeared to be secured by the treaty of neutrality at Turin (1696), when the war of the Spanish succession broke out. Austria having conquered Milan, Mantua, and Montferrat, retained the two first (for Mantua was forfeited by the felony of the duke), and gave the latter to Savoy. In the peace of Utrecht, Austria obtained Sardinia and Naples; Savoy obtained Sicily, which it exchanged with Austria for Sardinia, from which it assumed the royal title. Mont Genievre was made the boundary between France and Italy. The house of Farnese becoming extinct in 1731, the Spanish infant Charles obtained Parma and Piacenza. In the war for the Polish throne, of 1773, Charles Emanuel of Savoy, in alliance with France and Spain, conquered the Milanese territory, and received therefrom, in the peace of Vienna (1738), Novara and Tortona. Charles, infant of Spain, became king of the two Sicilies, and ceded Parma and Piacenza to Austria.

The Medici of Florence, entitled, since 1575, grand-dukes of Tuscany, became extinct in 1737. Francis Stephen, duke of Lorraine, now received Tuscany by the preliminaries of Vienna, and, becoming emperor in 1745, made it the appanage of the younger line of the Austro-Lorraine house. In 1745, the Spaniards conquered Milan, but were expelled thence by Charles Emanuel, to whom Maria Theresa ceded, in reward, some Milanese districts. Massa and Carrara fell to Modena, in 1743, by right of inheritance. The Spanish infant, Don Philip, conquered Parma and Piacenza in his own name, lost them, and obtained them again as a hereditary duchy, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. At the era of the French revolution, Italy was divided between the principality of Savoy, the Ecclesiastical States, the republics of Venice and Genoa, the grand duchy of Tuscany, and the small principalities of Parma and Modena. Naples and Sicily were governed by a king belonging to the house of Bourbon; and Mantua, Milan, and some other places were in the possession of Austria.

In September, 1792, the French troops first penetrated into Savoy, and planted the tree of liberty. Though expelled for some time, in 1793, by the Piedmontese and Austrians, they held it at the end of the year. The National Convention had already declared war against Naples, and the French advanced into the Piedmontese and Genoese territories, but were expelled from Italy in July, 1795, by the Austrains, Sardinians, and Neapolitans. In 1796, Napoleon Bonaparte received the chief command of the French army in Italy. He forced the king of Sardinia to conclude a treaty of peace, by which the latter was obliged to cede Nice and Savoy to France; conquered Austrian Lombardy, with the exception of Mantua; put the duke of Parma and the pope under contribution; and struck such consternation into the king of Naples, that he begged for peace.

After Mantua had also fallen, in 1797, Bonaparte formed of Milan, Mantua, the portion of Parma north of the Po, and Modena, the Cisalpine republic. France likewise made war on the pope, and annexed Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna to the Cisalpine republic (1797), by the peace of Tolentino. The French then advanced towards Rome, overthrew the

ecclesiastical government, and erected a Roman republic (1798). In Genoa, Bonaparte occasioned a revolution, by which a democratic republic was formed after the model of the French under the name of the Ligurian republic. The French had, meanwhile, penetrated into Austria, through the Venetian territory. The Venetians now made common cause with the brave Tyrolese, who gained advantages over the French in the Alps. Bonaparte, therefore, occupied Venice without striking a blow, and gave the republic a democratic constitution; but, by the peace of Campo-Formio (17th October, 1797), the Venetian territory, as far as the Adige, was relinquished to Austria, and the rest incorporated with the Cisalpine republic. The king of Sardinia concluded a treaty of alliance and subsidy with France, October 25; but, in 1798, the directory, assailed in Rome from Naples, deemed it expedient to compel him to resign his territories on the main land.

Notwithstanding its treaty of amity with France, Naples concluded an alliance, in 1798, with Britain and Russia. The French, therefore, occupied Naples, and erected there the Parthenopean republic. The grand duke of Tuscany had likewise formed an alliance with Naples and Britain, and his country was, in return, compelled by the French to receive, like Piedmont, a military administration. After the congress of Radstadt was broken off, Austria and the German empire, under Russian support, renewed the war against the French, who again left Naples and Rome to the British, Russians and Turks. The king and the pope returned to their capitals in Lombardy; the French were defeated by the Austrians, under Kray and Melas, and by the Russians, under Suwarrof, and lost all their fortresses, except Genoa, where Massena sustained a vigorous siege, while his countrymen had to evacuate all Italy. But in the meanwhile, Bonaparte was made first consul after his return from Egypt. He marched with a new army to Italy, defeated the Austrians at the memorable battle of Marengo (1800), and compelled them to capitulation, by which all the Italian fortresses were again evacuated. By the peace of Luneville, Feb. 9, 1801; the possession of Venice was confirmed to Austria, which was to indemnify the duke of Modena, by the cession of Brisgau. The duke of Parma received Tuscany, and afterwards, from Bonaparte, the title of king of Etruria. Parma was united to France. The Cisalpine and Ligurian republics were guaranteed by Austria and France, and with the Ligurian territories were united the imperial fiefs included within their limits. The king of Naples, who had occupied the states of the church, was obliged to conclude peace at Florence. By Russian mediation, he escaped with the cession of Piombino, the Stato degli Presidj, and his half of the island of Elba, together with the promise of closing his harbours against the British. The other half of Elba, Tuscany had already relinquished to France. But the whole island was obstinately defended by the British and Corsicans, with the armed inhabitants, and not evacuated until autumn. The Stato degli Presidj France ceded to Etruria, September 19; but strong detachments of French troops remained both in Naples and Tuscany, and their support cost immense sums. To the republics of Genoa and Lucca the first consul gave new constitutions in 1801. But, in January, 1802, the Cisalpine republic was transformed into the Italian republic, in imitation of the new French constitution, and Bonaparte became president. Genoa also received a new constitution, and Girolamo Durazzo for doge. Piedmont, however, was united with France.

After Bonaparte had become emperor, in 1804, he attached (March 17, 1805) the royal crown of Italy to the new imperial crown; he promised, however, never to unite the new monarchy with France, and even to give it a king of its own. The new constitution was similar to that of the French empire. Napoleon founded the order of the iron crown, and hav-

ing placed the crown on his own head, at Milan, he appointed his step-son, Eugene Beauharnais, viceroy of Italy, who laboured with great zeal for the improvement of all branches of the government, of industry, and the arts. Circumstances, however, rendered the new government oppressive, as the public expenses, during peace, amounted to 100,000,000 francs, which were all to be contributed by less than 4,000,000 people. No European power recognized, expressly, the Italian kingdom of Napoleon. The emperor continued to strengthen his power against the active enemies of the new order of things, and gave to his sister Eliza the principality of Piombino, and to her husband, Pasquale Bacciocchi, the republic of Lucca, as a principality, both as French fiefs. Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla were incorporated with the French empire, July 21st. The pope was obliged to sanction the imperial coronation by his presence. Austria now acceded to the alliance of Russia and Britain against France. Naples, also, again suffered the British and Russians to land. But the success of the Austrian arms was frustrated by the defeats at Ulm and Austerlitz; after which the peace of Presburg completed the French supremacy in Italy. Austrian Venice, with Istria and Dalmatia, were united to the kingdom of Italy; and this, with all the French institutions, Italy recognized.

The kingdom had now an extent of 35,450 square miles, with 5,657,000 inhabitants. Naples was evacuated by its auxiliaries, and occupied by the French, notwithstanding the attempts of the queen to excite an universal insurrection. Napoleon then gave the crown of Naples to his brother Joseph. In 1808, the widow of the king of Etruria, who conducted the regency in behalf of her minor son, was deprived of her kingdom, which was united with France. Napoleon, moreover, appointed his brother-in-law, the prince Borghese, governor-general of the departments beyond the Alps, and he took up his residence at Turin. As Napoleon had, meanwhile, given his brother Joseph the crown of Spain, he filled the throne of Naples with his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat, until that period grand-duke of Berg, who entered Naples Sept. 6, 1808. In 1809, the emperor gave Tuscany to his sister Eliza, of Piombino, with the title of grand-duchess. In the same year, Austria made new exertions to break the excessive power of France; but Napoleon again drove her troops from the field, and appeared once more victorious in Vienna, where he proclaimed (May 17) the end of the secular authority of the popes, and the union of the states of the church with France. Rome became the second city of the empire, and a pension of 2,000,000 of francs was assigned to the pope.

After the peace of Vienna, by which Napoleon acquired the Illyrian provinces, Istria and Dalmatia were separated from the kingdom of Italy, and attached to them. On the other hand, Bavaria ceded to Italy the circle of the Adige, a part of Eisach, and the jurisdiction of Clausen. The power of the French emperor was now, to all appearances, firmly established in Italy. While the Italian people were supporting French armies, sacrificing their own troops in the ambitious wars of Napoleon in remote regions, and were obliged to pay heavy taxes in the midst of the total ruin of their commerce, all the periodicals were full of praises of the institutions for the encouragement of science, arts, and industry, in Italy. After the fatal retreat from Russia, Murat, whom Napoleon had personally offended, deserted the cause of France, and joined Austria, (January 11, 1814), whose army penetrated into Italy, under Bellegarde. The viceroy, Eugene, continued true to Napoleon and his own character, and offered to the enemies of his dynasty the boldest resistance, which was frustrated by the fall of Napoleon in France.

After the truce of April 21, 1814, the French troops evacuated all Italy, and most of the provinces were restored to their legitimate sovereigns. The wife of Napoleon, however, the empress Maria Louisa, obtained the

duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla, with reversion to her son; and Napoleon himself became sovereign of Elba, of which he took possession, May 4. But before the congress of Vienna had organized the political relations of Europe, he effected his return to France, March 1, 1815. At the same time, Murat, king of Naples, abandoned his former ambiguous attitude, and took up arms, as he pretended, for the independence of Italy. But his appeal to the Italians was answered by a declation of war by Austria. Driven from Bologna by the Austrian forces, and totally defeated by Bianchi Tolentino, he lost the kingdom of Naples, into which the Austrian general Nugent had penetrated from Rome, and Bianchi from Aquila, seven weeks after the opening of the campaign. He embarked from Naples, with a view of escaping to France. Ferdinand returned from Palermo, and Murat's family found an asylum in Austria. Murat himself made a descent on Calabria, from Corsica, in order to recover his lost kingdom. He was taken prisoner at Pizzo, brought before a court martial, and shot, (Oct. 13, 1815).

Meanwhile, the congress of Vienna, by the act of June 9, 1815, had arranged the affairs of Italy:—1. The king of Sardinia was reinstated in his territories, according to the boundaries of 1792, with some alterations on the side of Geneva; for the portion of Savoy, left in possession of France by the peace of Paris, of May 30, 1814, was restored by the treaty of Paris, of Nov. 20, 1815. To his states was united Genoa, as a duchy, according to the boundaries of that republic, in 1792, and contrary to the promises made to Genoa.—2. The emperor of Austria united with his hereditary states the new Lombardo-Venetian provinces formerly belonging to Austria, the Valteline, Bormio, and Chiavenna, separated from the Grisons, besides Mantua and Milan. Istria, however, was united with the Germanic-Austrian kingdom of Illyria; Dalmatia, with Ragusa and Cattaro, constituting a distinct Austrian kingdom.—3. The valley of the Po was adopted as the boundary between the states of the church and Parma; otherwise, the boundaries of Jan. 1, 1792, were retained. The Austrian house of Este again received Modena, Reggio, Mirandola, Massa, and Carrara.—4. The empress Maria Louisa received the state of Parma, as a sovereign duchess, but, by the treaty of Paris, of June 10, 1817, only for life, it having been agreed that the duchess of Lucca and her descendants should inherit it.—5. The arch-duke Ferdinand of Austria became again grand-duke of Tuscany, to which were joined the Stato degli Presidj, the former Neapolitan part of the island of Elba, the principality of Piombino, and some small included districts, formerly fiefs of the German empire. The prince Buoncompagni Ludovisi retained all his rights of property in Elba and Piombino.—6. The Infanta, Maria Louisa, received Lucca, of which she took possession as a sovereign duchy, 1817, with an annnuity of 500,000 francs, till the reversion of Parma.—7. The territories of the church were all restored, with the exception of the strip of land on the left bank of the Po; and Austria retained the right of maintaining garrisons in Ferrara and Commacchio.—8. Ferdinand IV. was again recognized as king of the Two Sicilies. Britain retained Malta, and was declared the protectress of the United Ionian Islands. The knights of Malta, who had recovered their possessions in the States of the Church and in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, for a time made Catania, and after 1826, Ferrara, their residence. The republic of San Marino, and the prince of Monaco, whose mountain-fortress the Sardinians, and before them the French occupied, alone remained unharmed amid the fifteen political revolutions which Italy had undergone in the course of twenty-five years. The Austrian predominance was thus more firmly established than ever in Italy.

We shall now proceed with a history of VENICE, its political and commercial eminence having rendered it for many centuries by far the most important of the Italian states.

THE HISTORY OF VENICE.

Of all the republics of Italy, Venice is that whose history is the most interesting and singular; it has all the startling brilliancy of romance, and fully justifies the poetical remark—"Truth is strange, stranger than fiction." Even the termination of her independent existence differed from that of other states; it was only in the expiring throes of her once vast power that the springs of the policy which were created, and so long maintained by that power, were laid bare to the world's gaze. The policy of other states was obvious in their acts; but until the last vestige of Venetian power and independence was annihilated by the iron hand of Napoleon, the results, only, of Venetian policy were to be seen, the process never. In looking with stedfast eye upon that process it will be impossible to avoid a feeling of disgust and indignation at many of the individual acts of the government; but equally impossible will it be to withhold praise from its general wisdom. The tyranny to which some of the noblest and best blood in Venice was sacrificed we must detest; but the stern severity with which the domestic traitor was put down, and the keen policy by which the foreign foe was hoodwinked, we cannot but admire and approve. The history of Venice is now, more than ever, interesting to us; for it is in our day that a blow, as swift and crushing as the thunderbolt, has struck out of the list of independent states this ancient republic, so remarkable in site and in institutions.

At the northeastern extremity of Italy, between the Alps and the northwestern coast of the Adriatic, there was settled from a very early age a people called the Heneti or Veneti, from whom the fertile district in ques was called Venetia. From their position at the extremity of Italy it might be reasonably inferred that they were originally some nomade tribe of Northmen, and among the latest, if not the very latest of the early colonizers of Italy from that quarter. But a very great difference of opinion exists as to their actual origin. Both poetically and popularly they have been supposed to be the Heneto-Paphlagones, mentioned by Homer, who, having lost their leader in the Trojan war, were led into Europe by Antenor, and, having arrived at the head of the Adriatic gulf, expelled the Euganei, and settled there. Strabo thinks differently, and believes them to have been originally from Gaul—there having been a Gallic tribe of that name. But Polybius states, that though the Veneti undoubtedly resembled the Gauls in some of their manners and customs, they differed from them in language. Moreover, it is well observed by a modern historian, that whatever might be the resemblances between the Veneti and a Gallic tribe of the same name, as to manners, customs, and even dress, there is one striking part in the history of the former which may be looked upon as almost irrefragable evidence that it is not in Gaul that we must look for their origin. It is this: that, having a Gallic colony in their immediate neighbourhod, the Veneti constantly took the part of Rome against that colony in all occasions of dispute. That the account which makes them the Heneto-Paphlagones of Homer is correct, seems by no means improbable. We may easily suppose, having crossed the Bosphorus, they passed over the plains of Thrace, skirted the Danube and the Save into Croatia, and at length halted on the northwestern shore of the Adriatic, and either expelled or subjected the people whom they found there. Whatever the origin of the Venetians, it is quite certain that at a very early period they were extremely prosperous and powerful. The

very nature of the country would indicate this, as well as account for the long independence of Venice; an independence which lasted during some of the mightiest desolations of the world; which witnessed the expiring agony and downfall of the mighty empire of Rome; the rise of the French empire in the West, when Clovis conquered the Gauls; the rise and fall of the Ostrogoths in Italy and of the Visigoths in Spain; of the Lombards who succeeded the former, and of the Saracens who supplanted the latter! The Comte Figliosi, a learned modern historian of Venice, very clearly shows that in the most distant times the people which occupied the country since called the Venetian states of the Terra Firma, also occupied Rialto and its sixty neighbouring islets; and that from that circumstance arose the titles of *Venetia Prima* and *Venetia Secunda*, the first being applied to the continental territory, the second to the Venetian isles. The fertility of the former naturally inclined the inhabitants to agriculture; the situation of the latter in the midst of canals, at the embouchure of rivers, and near the Grecian islands, as naturally disposed them to navigation and commerce, and led to maritime skill, and the wealth and power of which that is invariably the creator.

It is not until the fourth century after the building of Rome that we find any mention made of the Venetians as a people; but the manner in which they are then mentioned by Polybius, shews that their prosperity and strength must even then have been of long standing, and arrived at a very high pitch. We have it on the authority of that historian, that the very existence of Rome may be said to have been preserved by the Veneti, on an occasion when the Gauls had made themselves masters of every foot of the eternal city, with the exception of the capitol. The Gauls, a restless, bold, and greedy people, were still, even in the fourth century of Rome, an almost nomade people. Polybius tells us that they were scattered about in villages unenclosed by walls. Of furniture they knew not the use. Their way of life was simple as that of the most unreclaimed savages; they knew no other bed than the grass; nor any other nutriment than the wild animals which they hunted down or ensnared. The arts and sciences were wholly unknown to them. Their wealth consisted of gold and cattle: the sole things which could with facility be removed from place to place as vagrant fancy or pressing conjuncture might demand. Such was the people who, in the year 364 from the building of Rome, defeated the Romans in the pitched battle of Allia, marched upon the city itself, beating the Romans in every skirmish during three successive days, and obtained possession of all but the capitol itself. At this most critical juncture the Veneti poured into Gaul with a fury which speedily relieved Rome of her foes, who hastened to defend their families and possessions.

Much difference of opinion has existed as to whether the Veneti were at this time the allies or the subjects of Rome; but we are disposed to think that they were the former, or Rome would not have sent a formal embassy to acknowledge and thank them for this timely and important service. It was not thus that haughty Rome treated those who were already subjected to her. But powerful and wealthy as the Veneti already were, not even their power and wealth could permanently keep them independent of the daily increasing power and profound policy of Rome. Friendly allies probably in the first instance, the Veneti, whether from force, fear, or in the well-founded hope of protection, at length became dependent upon Rome. They furnished a contingent force to Rome in the second Punic war, and Rome, on the other hand, defended Venetia as one of its proper provinces. In truth, it is of little consequence how Venetia passed from alliance to subjection; from voluntarily serving a neighbour, to marching under the orders of a protector and master. Such fate inevitably awaited the smaller and weaker of the neighbouring states;

and the subtle policy of Rome was little likely to overlook the importance of adding to its provinces a district which contained fifty cities, and a population of from a million to a million and a half; a district too, which, in addition to its fertility as a grain-growing country, could boast a breed of horses which frequently carried away the Olympic victory from the swiftest steeds that Greece herself could produce. However subjected, it is certain that in the years of Rome 652–3, just after the defeat of the Cimbri and Teutones by Marius, Venetia became a part of the Roman province called Transalpine Gaul, and was governed by a prætor. From this time forth we must, for some centuries, speak of it in connection with Rome; of whose disasters we shall see that fertile *Venetia Prima* was the desolated victim—and the maritime *Venetia Secunda* the glorious and mighty consequence. Continental Venice, if subjected to the power of Rome, was at the same time admitted to its privileges and made participator of its advantages. Governed by a Roman prætor, they also voted in the Roman assemblies of the people; and furnishing a contingent of men and money when the affairs of Rome demanded it, they also had the aid of Roman taste and Roman wealth in improving and beautifying their cities, as numerous remains, especially in Verona, show at this day.

From the annexation of Venice to Rome, until the end of the fourth century of the Christian era, it is in Roman history that the reader must look for such slight mention as is made at all of the affairs of Venetia; we pass, therefore, in the present sketch, to the commencement of the fourth century of the Christian era. The fierce northern people known by the name of Goths, being expelled by the no less fierce and still more powerful Huns, about the year 376, were allowed to settle themselves in the vast plains of Thrace. Actuated partly, perhaps, by gratitude to Rome, but still more by hatred of the Huns, the Goths were of signal service to the western empire, to which the Huns were a dreaded and perpetually troublesome enemy. Alaric, the Gothic leader, who the most distinguished himself in this auxiliary warfare, was far too acute not to perceive the weakness of the once mighty people of which he was the temporary ally and the seemingly grateful guest: and he was far too ambitious and restless in his nature, to see that weakness without design to take advantage of it. From merely aiding Theodosius the Great to repel the Huns, Alaric easily got leave to assist in putting down the rebellions of Argobastes and Eugenius, who aimed at the imperial purple. This interference in the internal affairs of Rome at once increased Alaric's insight into her actual condition, and his desire to become the master of that empire, of which hitherto he had only been the sheltered guest or the paid servant. A considerable territory in Thrace and high honorary rank in the Roman army should have been deemed by Alaric himself a sufficient reward for all the services he had rendered to Rome; especially as Rome had sheltered the Goths as distressed fugitives long before she asked their aid as warlike allies. But a plea was necessary to justify the auxiliary in becoming the foeman; and accordingly as soon as Alaric saw that the state of public affairs was such as to promise him success, he began to call men and angels to witness how faithfully and boldly he had served Rome, and how scantily and ungratefully she had rewarded his good services.

Both courts, the eastern and western, abounded with men who wished to see confusion and warfare in the midst of their country. Rufinus, though he was tutor to young Arcadius after the death of Theodosius the Great, was the most active traitor who wished for the success of the barbarian malcontent; and aided him not only with secret advice and information, but also with considerable sums of money. Thus aided and encouraged, Alaric overran Pannonia, Macedonia, and those parts of

Thrace which were adjacent to his settlement and sufficiently wealthy to be worth his destroying labour. Stilicho, the general of Honorius, who then reigned over the western empire, was for a time successful against Alaric; but by an unfortunate over-confidence gave the able barbarian opportunity of retaliation, which he so effectually used, that Honorius was fain to recall his general from aiding the Greeks, and convert the Goth from an enemy into an ally, by giving him the sovereignty of all Illyria. The increase of power which Alaric necessarily obtained from increase of territory was little likely to decrease either his enmity to Honorius, whose general had temporarily defeated him, or his desire to overrun the western empire, which promised much richer spoil than the Grecian territory he had already ravaged. Causing himself to be elevated upon a shield—the ancient enthronement of a warrior king—he was proclaimed, amidst the shouts of his fierce soldiery, king of the Visigoths. Increasing his already immense army by recruits from the banks of the Danube, he pointed to Rome and the smiling Italian lands, and promised their spoils to his followers; and, unfortunately, his fierce hatred of Rome and love of bloodshed and plunder were fully equalled by the timidity and irresolution of Honorius. That feeble monarch was speedily convinced of his inferiority to his barbaric opponent; and was from the outset of the war worsted by him, in despite of a literally innumerable army, composed partly of veteran troops and partly of barbarian levies from the very extremities of the empire. Stilicho, the man who, of all the emperor's friends and advisers, was most likely to have proved the successful defender of the empire, had been sacrificed, partly to that vague hatred which the multitude of all times and all ages bear to towering talent, and partly to the timidity and treachery of Honorius himself, who had learned to fear ability by mere dint of profiting by it.

With such an emperor, just such a people was joined as was least likely to be permanently successful in resisting a bold, greedy, and hardy race of barbarians led on by an Alaric or an Attila. The individual hardihood and pride of manhood that had characterized the Roman of the republic, and the serried discipline and national pride that had so often given prey to the Roman eagle, under the Roman emperors who were worthy of that name, had passed away before a luxury and effeminacy which would be incredible were they not related to us by the pens of indignant Romans who describe the scenes which, loathing, they lived amidst and witnessed. Ammianus Marcellinus, more especially, describes the luxury, pride, and effeminacy of the rich as being more than eastern. "If," says he, "on a hot day they muster courage to sail in their painted gallies from the Lucrine lake to their elegant villas on the sea-coast of Puteoli and Cayeta, they compare the exploit to the expeditions of Alexander and Cæsar. Yet should a fly settle on the silken folds of their umbrellas, or a sunbeam penetrate some unguarded chink, they deplore their hard fate, and protest, in affected language, that 'twere better to have been born in the land of the Cimmerians, the region of perpetual clouds and darkness." Innumerable instances might be given of this effeminacy as to the upper orders of Romans in the commencement of the fifth century; and abundant proofs might be adduced of the state of want, dependence upon public alms, or still more enthralling dependence on individual patronage, of the lower orders. But enough has been said to show that the state of Rome, alike in government and people, was precisely such as to invite, nay, to require, the rude purfication of successive and successful invasions of hardier races. Alaric again and again ravaged the Roman territoies, Honorius and his ministers literally inviting him to do so by their pusillanimity on some occasions and empty threats on others. Adolphus, brother-in-law of Alaric, who awfully realized his truculent boast that where his horse once trod the grass never grew,

ravaged Italy in every direction; and perhaps no part of the empire, if we except Aquilea, which was so utterly destroyed as to be even without traceable ruins, suffered more than Venetia Prima, or Continental Venice, Concordia, Oderso, Altino, and Padua. For three years the inhabitants of these places were never for an instant free from the presence of the stranger and the oppressor, on occasion of the second inroad of the Gothic Alaric; and many of them, even during the tyranny of that comparatively mild tyrant, took refuge in the various islets which were grouped around Rialto. This island, which was already the port and entrepôt of the commerce of Padua, was naturally that which was earliest and most resorted to; and we find that as early as the year 421 the inhabitants of this little islet were numerous enough to allow of the building of a considerable church, which was in that year dedicated to St. James, in pursuance of a vow made during the progress of a great fire which consumed twenty-four houses. It is possible that the retreat of the great majority of the fugitives from the main land to the isles was merely temporary, and that when their proper country was abandoned by the barbarians, they would be led, either by a pining after their fertile and beautiful land, which would be remembered with the greater regret by being contrasted with the flat and dreary shores of the isles, or by a vague hope of finding some remnants of plunder left behind by the barbarians, to return to the continent. But that the number of permanent emigrants to the isles even at this time was very considerable, is evident from a document which we believe is not quoted, if even referred to, by any modern historian of Venice, except Daru.

The document in question is an old and only partially perfect manuscript in the convent of St. Michael—and is a collection of "various notices relative to the origin of Venice," which was formed by Fulgentius Tomasellus, an abbot of the house, and since translated by one of its librarians, Father Mitarelli. It bears date in the year of Christ 421, and the last year of the papacy of Innocent I.; and the chief passage of it that was sufficiently legible to be translated into Latin by the learned librarian, is a decree of the consuls and the senate of Padua, for erecting Rialto into a chief city, in which the scattered population of the whole of the adjacent islands might congregate, not merely for their own greater comfort, and the convenience and prosperity of their own port, and the patron city of Padua, but likewise, and especially, that they being thus concentrated might keep an armed fleet, and thus defend alike themselves and the neighbouring continent against the recurrence of the destruction by fire and sword, which this region had already, and to so fearful an extent, experienced at the hands of "Gothorum cum rege illorum Alarico."

"*Reliquum legere non potui*," says the translator, the rest is not legible; but enough appears to show, that the earliest inhabitants of the isles were comparatively few in number, scattered hither and thither without judgment and without common polity, save such as necessarily resulted from their common dependence upon Padua, as fishermen, carriers, and traders in general: and that the invasion of Italy by Alaric, and the subsequent and ruinous occupation of the cities and plains of Lombardy by his fierce people, so much increased the populousness of the isles, as to lead the Paduans to order the concentration of the inhabitants and the constitution of a central seat of population—in short, of a chief city of the islets, to which it was inevitable the rest should become morally, as in the end they also were physically, united and subjected. Imitating upon a small scale the immemorial policy of Rome herself, the Paduans, while they assuredly took the course which was best calculated to promote the interests of the settlers on the islands, and to make them importantly useful to northeastern Italy, should its fate ever depend upon maritime warfare, did not allow the islanders to forget that they were dependents

as traders, and, in some degree, as colonists; and, accordingly, the new town or state was governed by officers appointed by the Paduans, with the title of consuls.

Rialto, or *Rivo alta*, the deep river, which was thus made the chief town of the isles, was subsequently connected with the opposite bank by a bridge which bore the same name, and this island subsequently had built upon it, too, the exchange, also called Rialto; this last being at once the homage paid to the chief island, and surest guarantee, in a purely commercial or maritime state, for preserving the chief resort and influence to it. The peculiar situation of the Venetian isles being considered, the obstacles which their difficult navigation must have presented to foreigners and barbarians in the then rude state of the maritime art, their connection with so fertile and populous a portion of continental Italy, would prognosticate immense prosperity immediately, and great, if not preponderating power ultimately, to the new state, in the event of that ruin falling upon the Roman empire, which every circumstance, within and without, indicated to least careful and attentive observer; even should no other external circumstances favour the islanders. Such other circumstances, however, were not to be wanting in the causation of Venetian greatness.

A new scourge for Italy appeared in the shape of a multitude of Huns, who were led from the depths of Scythia by Attila; a leader fierce and able as Alaric in the field, and far more cruel and unsparing when the field was won. Having carried fire and sword throughout Macedonia, Germany, and Gallia, from which last he found it prudent to retreat, the alarm was suddenly given that he was leading the Huns and their swarming barbarous allies towards the Julian Alps, threatening new destruction to the beautiful lands of Venetia, and new miseries to the Venetians of the main land. In the year 452 Attila appeared before Aquilea; and that city still preserving some of the spirit of old Rome, of which it was a colony and offset, made a defence so brave—though insufficient to save it from the fierce host that assailed it—that when it was at length, in sheer necessity yielded, the enraged barbarian literally left not one brick or stone standing upon another. The fate of Aquilea, and the terrific character of its destroyer, naturally struck terror into the inhabitans of the neighbouring cities of Padua, Altino, Concordia, and Oderso; who hastily gathered together all their property that was moveable, and hastened to take refuge in the isles; the difficult navigation of which, and the maritime habits of the long settled and proper inhabitants of which, gave a promise of safety from pursuit and destruction, which the example of Aquilea but too plainly showed to be hopeless upon the main land.

The cause of this new irruption of Attila and his Huns, as being also a principal cause of the wealth and power of Venice the Superb, must not be wholly omitted here; we mean the treason of Honoria, the sister of Valentinian III. This princess, having dishonoured her rank and family by her intrigue with a courtier, which intrigue was aided by the carelessness of her own mother, who had always acted as if she was regardless of the education and moral conduct of her daughter, was placed under the most rigid surveillance. Naturally of a gay, perhaps we might even say of a licentious turn, this restraint wearied her to such a pitch of desperation, that she contrived to send a ring to Attila, as a pledge of love and good faith; and with it a pressing message demanding his support and aid against her own family, and requesting to be admitted in the number of his wives. Honoria was reputed to be very beautiful, and to female beauty the barbarian chieftain was by no means unsusceptible. But he devised a considerable improvement upon the proposition of the princess; he preceded his new advance upon the empire with a demand, not only of the hand of the lady, but also of half the provinces of the empire. The

refusal he met with, and his rage thereupon, led to the destruction of Aquilea, and to the taking refuge of the inhabitants of that and the neighbouring cities in Rialto and the dependent Venetian isles.

If not so wholly destroyed to their very foundations as Aquilea, the neighbouring cities were, however, so completely pillaged and so considerably devastated, that a vast number of the inhabitants not merely sought shelter in the isles during the actual and threatening presence of the barbarians upon the main land, but were so wearied by the losses they had already sustained, and so completely dispirited by the apparent probability of a frequent recurrence of similar inflictions, as to take up their permanent residence in the comparatively inaccessible isles, where they had at first sought only a temporary shelter. Some would doubtless return to the main land, in hope to find their homes undestroyed, whatever might have befallen the homes of their neighbours; but being as poor as the poorest of the islanders, and far less favourably situated as to the future than the islanders as a body, it was not at all reasonable that the former should claim any continuance of the Paduan authority over the isles; the more especially, as no one knew how soon a new incursion of the barbarians might once more render the isles the only place of safe refuge to the dwellers upon the main land. The authority of the old towns being thus tacitly but effectually terminated, the islanders and refugees consolidated themselves together, and organized, perhaps, the very best kind of society for the circumstances in which they were placed.

The extent of the immigration had made it impossible for the chief islet, Rialto, to accommodate more than a very inconsiderable portion of the fugitives. The remainder had of necessity distributed themselves amid the other islets, all of which were now populated more or less densely. Each of the larger of these islands, containing a sufficient population to give it the necessary weight and importance in the new state, it was agreed to elect a tribune. This magistrate, whose term of office was limited to one year, was charged with the administration of justice in his own isle, and was accountable only to the general assembly of the colony, which alone could decide upon the affairs of the isles *en masse*. In a word, the islanders formed a federative republic; the whole governed as to external affairs and affairs of common import, by an authority delegated from the whole; each internally and in matters peculiar to itself governed by the tribune of its own election. For a long time their chief commodities for sale were salt and fish, but those are articles peculiarly profitable where the commerce in them is very large; however, the islanders could not fail to accumulate riches, the great source, when wisely used, of political power—exempted as they were from the evils to which the cities on the main land had become the victims.

The invasion of Italy by the Heruli under Odoacer, in 476, when the army sent by Augustulus was vanquished, and its general slain by Odoacer's own hand; and the subsequent invasion of the Ostrogoths under Theodoric, who dethroned and put to death Odoacer, the dethroner of Agustulus, caused a new increase of population to flow into the Venetian isles; and when the insular republic had barely a hundred years of existence, it already began to be respected for its industry and numbers, and admired for a prosperity so strikingly contrasted with its small number of natural productions. Fish and salt were all that Venice seemed to possess; and it was not yet known how far better a nurse commerce is to a state than war. The disasters to which the empire had been subjected both in the east and in the west, and the blots which barbarian success had cast upon the escutcheon of Rome's supposed invincibility, added to the utter destruction of the cities of Venetia Prima, probably caused Rome's power to be held in comparatively light estimation even by those

who returned to the main land and rebuilt their destroyed homes. And the isolation of the inhabitants of the isles, their early poverty, and, above all, the hardly practicable sea-walls that stretched around them, would seem to make their independence of disorganized and distracted Rome a matter beyond dispute. It has, however, been disputed, and by a high authority, but we think on very inadequate grounds. Cassiodorus, minister to Theodoric, wrote a highly flattering letter,—a letter penned with most oratorical art and care, and evidently with great anxiety as to its success,—requesting the Venetians to effect by means of their vessels the transport of a supply of wine and oil from Istria to Ravenna. The very care and polish that are lavished upon this letter seem to us to be quite decisive as to Rome having no recognized, stated, or easily available authority over the Venetians of the isles. It is quite true, as has been remarked by the learned count Daru, that notwithstanding the urbanity of the letter, it yet evidently contains an order. It seems to us, that the politely-couched order of such a neighbour as Rome, can scarcely be said to prove aught against the actual political independence of such a state as Venice, and at so early a stage of its existence. It would seem far more correct to consider that Rome couched a demand, which she knew was not strictly just, in terms which she judged would be agreeable to her nascent neighbour. Even in her decline, Rome was far too formidable a neighbour not to feel at liberty to make even unreasonable requests of a community of fishermen and small merchants, comparatively prosperous as that community might be.

With increase of population and of wealth, the Venetians, by which name we shall, to save circumlocution, henceforth designate only the islanders, began to feel anxious about that which was their chief and cheap safeguard, the difficult navigation of the lagunes; and the navigation was forbidden not merely to strangers in general, but even to that Padua which once was the metropolis and nursing mother of the island republic. When we consider the horrors to which the cities on the main land had been exposed by the barbarian invaders, and reflect how probable it was that new invasions would occur, which only the difficulty of the navigation and the superiority this insured to the vessels of the islanders could prevent from extending to the isles, we can scarcely wonder at the stern and jealous rule adopted by men who had only become islanders and fishers after they had been ruined agriculturists, flying in haste and in terror from one of the loveliest and most fertile of earth's lovely and fertile spots. Nor was it long ere the Venetians had good reason to congratulate themselves upon the care they had bestowed equally upon acquiring dexterity in the navigation of their narrow and difficult creeks and shallows, and preventing a like dexterity from being acquired by others.

The Slavi, a barbarous and warlike people, had established themselves in Dalmatia. That country, however, had already been so often overrun and plundered, that it afforded by no means a sufficient amount of booty to satisfy so numerous and so greedy a people. They consequently availed themselves of the numerous ports and creeks their new country afforded them, to imitate the piratical example of the Illyrians, by whom the country had formerly been occupied, and speedily became a name of terror to all who had occasion to be upon the sea in that direction. The Venetians, perpetually pursuing their commercial and carrying avocations in their light vessels, were especially subjected to the attacks of these daring marauders, to whom the portable but valuable freights brought by the Venetians from the ports of the eastern empire, with which they carried on great commerce, were an irresistible temptation. The hardy habits and active life of the fishers and merchants of the Venetian isles had given new vigour and courage to the people, who, while living in comparative luxury upon the main land, had abandoned all their possessions

to the barbarians, rather than struggle to possess them at the risk of losing life also. Mustering their vessels, they boldly encountered the pirates, beat them, and compelled them to respect the liberty of the seas as far as Venetians were concerned therein. This, in addition to many other circumstances, seems to have been a link in a long and unbroken chain of causation of the prosperity and power of Venice in her subsequent palmy days; for while the success with which the traders encountered the terrible and notorious pirates was especially well calculated to obtain a high and chivalrous name for the Venetians, even at the outset of their career, the very struggle and warfare in which they were from time to time engaged with so fierce a people, and with everything at stake upon the issue, must have had a mighty share in increasing the energy of the Venetians, and in forming their national character to that striking commixture of commercial industry and warlike spirit and skill to which their subsequent and long-continued greatness may so greatly be ascribed.

In the year 568 the Lombards invaded Italy, and so successfully, as completely to cut off all connexion between it and the eastern empire. The Lombards, who came from Pannonia, like all the other barbarian scourges of Italy, commenced their destroying and plundering career in Venice on the main land. And now again, the misfortune of the main land brought benefit to the isles. Not only were the people of the newly rebuilt habitations on the main land glad to abandon their incomplete cities, and take refuge in the isles; not only did the islanders see the inhabitants of even Padua, their former patron city, imploring shelter, but even the clergy settled among them, and permanently, too; for the Lombards established Arian preachers in the towns of continental Venice; and the consequence was, so fierce and sanguinary a war and such ceaseless schisms, that the clergy who had found a refuge in the isles did not think of quitting it. Though the Lombards persecuted the catholic faith professed by the Venetians, the former, who were at that time neither a commercial nor a maritime people, were to a very great extent dependent upon the islanders for their supply of all such necessaries or luxuries as came from foreign countries; and in this particular superiority of the Venetians to the Lombards, and subsequently to Charlemagne and his Franks, the attentive and thoughtful reader will scarcely fail to see yet another great element of the permanency and power of the insular state of Venice. Eginard, the contemporary and historian of Charlemagne, makes emphatic mention of the coarseness of the apparel of that monarch and his court, as compared to the fine stuffs and rich silks brought by the Venetian traders from the ports of Syria, the Archipelago and the Black Sea. It was in the inevitable nature of things, that the very increase of population which tended so greatly to the increase of the prosperity and consideration of the comparatively new state, should bring in its train such a diversity of interests, such a difference of proportion in the numbers, wealth, and power of the numerous insulated members of the federative republic as should call aloud for a change in the political system. Most important changes afterwards took place; and it is to Venice as an acting and not merely growing state, that we have henceforth to direct our attention. But we perceive that we have already greatly trespassed on our limits, and must endeavour to finish this sketch with a rapid pen.

The original form of Venetian government was purely democratical; magistrates were chosen by a general assembly of the people, who gave them the name of tribunes; one of whom was appointed to preside on each island, but to hold his office only for a year. This form subsisted for about one hundred and fifty years; it then appeared expedient to make choice of a chief magistrate, and on him the title of duke was conferred, which has since been corrupted to doge; this dignity was elective, and held for life; he was even entrusted with the power of nominating to all

offices, and of making peace and declaring war. Paul Luke Anafesto, the first duke, was elected in the year 697; and such was the confidence which the people reposed in their duke, that he was at liberty to use his own discretion how far he would avail himself of the advice of the citizens. In the councils which he called on any matter of importance, he sent messages for those citizens for whose judgment he had the greatest esteem, praying that they would come and assist him with their advice This form was retained by succeeding doges, and the citizens so sent for were called *pregadi* (from the Italian word *pregare*, to pray). The third doge, whose talents for war had proved successful in extending the power of the republic, at length meditated the assumption of a more absolute sway, wishing to render the supreme authority hereditary in his family, but such conduct excited general alarm in the people; he was assaulted in his palace, and there put to death. This event caused the government of Venice to be new modelled, and a chief magistrate, who was now called "master of the militia," was elected annually; but his power while in office was the same as before. Such form of government continued only five years, when the title of doge was revived (A. D. 740), in the person of the son of him who had been assassinated.

About the latter end of the twelfth century, when every other part of the Christian world was seized with a frantic rage for recovering the holy land, the Venetians were so far from contributing any forces for the crusades that they did not scruple to supply the Saracens with arms, ammunition, and every other necessary. As the power of the state became augmented by the acquisition of Istria and many ports of Dalmatia, the jealousy of the people towards their doge became stronger. At that time the only tribunal at Venice consisted of forty judges; these were called "the council of forty;" but in the year 1173, another doge, named Michieli, being assassinated in a popular insurrection, the council of forty found means to new model the government, by gaining the consent of the people to delegate the right of voting for magistrates, which each citizen possessed, to four hundred and seventy persons, called councillors, who received the appellation of "the grand council;" and, acting as delegates of the people, became what the general assembly of the people until that time had been. By this artful innovation (which the people were cajoled into an acquiescence with, by retaining the right of electing these councillors annually), the democracy became presently subverted; and an aristocracy, in its fullest and most rigid form, was introduced, by restricting the power of the doge, and instituting a variety of officers (all of whom were, in a short time, chosen from among the nobility) which effectually controlled both the prince and the people.

Ziani was the first doge elected after the government had received, what the event proves to have been, its permanent modification; and during his administration the singular ceremony of espousing the sea, which has been annually observed ever since, was first adopted, and took its rise from the assistance which the Venetians gave to the pope Alexander III. when hard pressed by the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, and the signal victory they obtained over a formidable fleet under the command of Otho, son of Frederic, in which the admiral and thirty of his ships were taken. Alexander, with the whole city of Venice, went out to meet Ziani, the conqueror, on his return; to whom his holiness presented a ring, saying, "Use this ring as a chain to retain the sea, henceforth, in subjection to the Venetian state; espouse her with this ring, and let the marriage be solemnized annually, by you and your successors, to the end of time, that the latest posterity may know that Venice has acquired the empire of the waves, and holds the sea in subjection, in the same manner as a wife is held by her husband." During the continuance of the republic this ceremony was performed by the doge dropping a ring into the sea, pronoun-

cing at the same time the words, *Desponsamus te, Mare, in signum veri perpetuique dominii.* This emblem of its former power and independence is now forever gone; and, in the language of the poet,

"The spouseless Adriatic mourns her lord."

The Venetians having extended their territories into Lombardy, Istria, and Dalmatia, became masters of many of the islands in the Archipelago, particularly the large and importannt one of Candia; they were masters of the Morea; and, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, Dandolo, their doge, when more than eighty years of age, in conjunction with the French, took Constantinople from the Turks. It was about this time that they engrossed the lucrative trade in the manufactures and productions of the East Indies, which they procured at the port of Alexandria, and conveyed to every market of Europe. Under Marino Morosini was introduced the latest form of electing the doge; and at this juncture jealousy and envy occasioned the war with Genoa, which, after continuing a hundred and thirty years, was at last concluded by a treaty in 1381. During this war, Peter Gradonigo, the doge, procured a law to be passed, that none but the nobility should be capable of having a seat in the grand council; and thus the government became altogether aristocratical. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the Venetians extended their possessions in Lombardy, and, in 1473, the last king of Cyprus appointed the state of Venice his heir. Towards the end of the fifteenth century the commerce and power of the Venetians began to decline; for the Portuguese having doubled theCape of Good Hope, and found a way to the East Indies by sea, that valuable trade was acquired, first by the discoverers, and afterwards by the Dutch and English.

In the beginning of the sixteenth century (A. D. 1509) the pope, the emperor, France and Spain, joined in the famous league of Cambray, which threatened the subversion of the Venetian state; but the republic made a brave stand against its numerous and powerful enemies, and the Venetians retained their independence, although with the loss of all their possessions in the ecclesiastical state and the Milanese. They also suffered much from the Turks, who drove them out of Cyprus. In the seventeenth century a sharp contest arose between the government, the clergy, and the pope, in which, however, the former had the advantage. Venice was also long engaged in fierce wars with the Turks, during which they lost Candia, but gained part of Dalmatia and all the Morea; the latter, with other places and districts, the Turks recovered in the wars which were waged during the early part of the last century. The Venetian government, in the year 1737, having shown particular marks of respect to the prince, who was generally called in England the pretender, when he visited the city, under the character of count of Albany, the British court took great offence, and the Venetian resident at London was ordered to depart; but proper concessions being made by the state, a friendly intercourse was re-established, and in the year 1745 the earl of Holdernesse was sent ambassador extraordinary to Venice. In the year 1763 the Venetians found it necessary to pay a subsidy to the dey of Algiers, to preserve their commerce from the depredations of those corsairs; but they subsequently carried on a war with some other of the piratical states, nearer to them, on that coast.

Thus did the republic of Venice continue upwards of thirteen hundred years, amidst many foreign wars and intestine commotions. Its grandeur, as we have seen, was chiefly owing to its trade; and, after the decline of that, its strength and power suffered considerable diminution. No republic in the history of the world has subsisted for so long a space of time; and, as its independence was not founded on usurpation, nor cemented with blood, so its descent from that splendour and power which

it had once attained, instead of degrading, reflects the highest honour on them. None of the causes which subverted the famous republics of antiquity effected the decline of Venice. No tyrants enslaved, no demagogues deluded, no luxuries enervated them. They owed their greatness to their industry, bravery, and maritime skill; and their decline, to the revolutions which successful pursuits of science had produced in the nations of Europe. For many years they withstood the whole force of the Ottoman empire by sea and land; and, although their treasures were eventually exhausted, and their power weakened, their enemies have experienced consequences scarcely less fatal. No government has been more attacked by deep-laid and formidable conspiraces than that of Venice: many of which have been brought to the very eve of execution without discovery or suspicion. But though the entire subversion of the state has been, at times, impending from some of these plots, yet until the era of the French revolution, they have been constantly rendered abortive, either by the vigilance or good fortune of the senate. One of the most remarkable of these conspiracies was formed by a doge named Marino Faliero, in the year 1355, who at that time was eighty years of age; but, conceiving a violent resentment against the senate, he formed a plan in order to assassinate the whole body. The design was timely discovered, and the dignified traitor brought to trial, found guilty upon his own confession, and publicly beheaded. In the great chamber of the palace, where the portraits of the doges are placed, there is a vacant space between the predecessor and successor of this man, where appears this inscription, "*Locus Marini Falieri decapitati.*" "The place intended for the portrait of Marinus Fallierus, who was beheaded." The year 1618 is also distinguished by a no less remarkable conspiracy, the contriver and principal agent in which was the marquis Bedamar, the Spanish ambassador residing there. The elegant pen of the abbé St. Real has transmitted to posterity this very curious instance of superior talents and consummate artifice, which were, for a long course of time, exercised in plotting the most atrocious deed, being no less than the total destruction of the republic. Otway has formed a very pathetic tragedy upon this story, in which the character of Belvidera, and the love scenes between her and Jaffier, are the only fictions of the poet.

The college, called "the seigniory," or supreme cabinet council of the state, was originally composed of the doge and six counsellors only, but to those at different periods were added, six of the grand council chosen by the senate, who are called *savii* (sages), then five savii of the Terra Firma, whose more immediate department it was to superintend the business of the towns and provinces belonging to the republic on the continent of Europe, particularly what regarded their troops; at one time there were also five savii for maritime affairs, but after the state had lost its commercial importance, five young noblemen were chosen by the senate every six months, who attended the meetings of the seigniory without having a vote, though they gave their opinions when asked: this was designed as an initiation into public business. To these were added the chiefs of the criminal court of "forty." This college was at once the cabinet council and the representive of the republic. The *consiglio di dieci*, or "council of ten," was the high penal court, which consisted of ten counsellors; the doge, as president, and his six *conglieri*, or counsellors. It was supreme in all state crimes, and possessed the power of seizing any one who was accused before them, of committing him to close confinement, and prohibiting all communication with his relations and friends, of examining and trying him in a summary manner; and, if a majority of the council pronounced him guilty, of condemning him to death; they also might order the execution to be either public or private, as they thought proper. This formidable tribunal was established in the year

1310. About two centuries after, a still more despotic power was entrusted to three individuals, always chosen from the above council of ten, and forming the court called the state inquisition. The inquisitors likewise kept the keys of chests which are placed in several parts of the ducal palace, enclosed within the open jaws of lions' heads carved in the walls; through which notes were conveyed by any one who was disposed to drop them; and thus notice was secretly given to the government of whatever might concern it to know.

The history of Venice furnished a dreadful instance, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, of a number of confederated villains, who concerted their measures so artfully as to frame false accusations against some of the Venetian nobles, which, in the opinion of their judges, convicted them of treasonable practices against the state, and one at least was publicly executed. At length the frequency of accusations created suspicions, which led to a full detection of the infernal scheme; upon which every possible reparation was made to the manes of the innocent victim, the honour of whose family was fully restored; but the tribunal, which decreed the sentence, was suffered to possess the same unlimited power; the only alteration being that anonymous information was somewhat more cautiously received; for it was a political maxim in Venice, that "it is of more importance to the state to intimidate every one even from the appearance of crime, than to allow a person, against whom a presumption of guilt appears, to escape, however innocent he may be." How different this from the merciful spirit of those laws which hold it better ten guilty persons escape than that one innocent person should suffer!

The history of Venice furnishes two instances which bear a strong similarity to the conduct of the Roman Brutus. In the year 1400, Antonio Venier being doge, his son having committed an offence of no great enormity, was condemned in a fine of one hundred ducats, and to be imprisoned for a certain time. During his confinement, he fell sick, and petitioned to be removed to a purer air. The doge rejected the petition, declaring that the sentence must be executed literally, and that his son must take the fortune of the rest in the same situation. The youth was much beloved, and many applications were made that the sentence might be softened, on account of the danger which threatened him, but the father was inexorable, and the son died in prison. Fifty years after this, a son of another doge, named Foscari, being suspected of having been the instigator of the murder of a senator, who was one of the "council of ten," was tortured, banished, and on his application to the duke of Milan, soliciting him to exert his interest for his recall, was brought back to Venice, for the purpose of again undergoing the torture, and being closely confined in the state prison; the only mercy shown him being that of granting permission for the doge, the father of the unfortunate youth, to pay him a visit in his confinement. The father, who had held his office for thirty years, and was very old, exhorted his son to support his hard fate with firmness; whilst the son protested not only his innocence, but that he was utterly incapable of supporting the confinement to which he was doomed. In an agony of grief he threw himself at his father's feet, imploring him to take compassion on a son whom he had ever loved with the fondest affection, and conjuring him to use his influence with the council to mitigate their sentence, that he might be saved from the most cruel of all deaths, that of expiring under the consuming torture of a broken heart, secluded from every creature whom he loved. This melting intercession had no other effect upon the father than to draw from him the following reply:—"My son, submit to the laws of your country, and do not ask of me what it is not in my power to obtain." After this interview, the miserable youth languished for a while, and then expired in prison; but the

violence which his father, as a magistrate, did to his paternal feelings, terminated his life somewhat sooner. A short time after this catastrophe, a Venetian of noble rank, being on his death-bed, confessed, that, urged by private resentment, he was the murderer of the senator whose assassination had given rise to this tragic scene.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

If it is hard to carry back our ideas of Rome from its actual state to the period of its highest splendour, it is yet harder to go back in fancy to a time still more distant, a time earlier than the beginning of its authentic history, before the art of man had completely rescued the soil of the future city from the dominion of nature. Here also it is vain to attempt accuracy in the details, or to be certain that the several features in our description all existed at the same period. It is enough if we can image to ourselves some likeness of the original state of Rome, before the undertaking of those great works which are ascribed to the late kings.

The Pomœrium of the original city on the Palatine, as described by Tacitus, included not only the hill itself, but some portion of the ground immediately below it; it did not, however, reach as far as any of the other hills. The valley between the Palatine and the Aventine, afterwards the site of the Circus Maximus, was in the earliest times covered with water; so also was the greater part of the valley between the Palatine and the Capitoline, the ground afterwards occupied by the Roman forum. But the city of the Palatine hill grew in process of time, so as to become a city of seven hills. Not the seven famous hills of imperial or republican Rome, but seven spots more or less elevated, and all belonging to three only of the latter seven hills, that is to the Palatine, the Cælian, and the Esquiline. At this time Rome, already a city on seven hills, was distinct from the Sabine city on the Capitoline, Quirinal, and Viminal hills. The two cities, although united under one government, had still a separate existence; they were not completely blended in one till the reigns of the latter kings. The territory of the original Rome during its first period, the true Ager Romanus, could be gone round in a single day. It did not extend beyond the Tiber at all, nor probably beyond the Anio; and on the east and south, where it had most room to spread, its limit was between five and six miles from the city. This Ager Romanus was the exclusive property of the Roman people, that is of the houses; it did not include the lands conquered from the Latins, and given back to them again when the Latins became the *plebs*, or commons of Rome.

Well may the inquiring historian exclaim, "What was Rome, and what was the country around it, which have both acquired an interest such as can cease only when the earth itself shall perish?" The hills of Rome are such as we rarely see; low in height, but with steep and rocky sides. Across the Tiber the ground rises to a greater height than that of the Roman hills, but its summit is a level unbroken line, while the heights, which opposite to Rome rise immediately from the river, under the names of Janiculus and Vaticanus, then sweep away to some distance from it, and return in their highest and boldest form at the Mons Marius, just above the Milvian bridge and Flaminian road. Thus to the west the view is immediately bounded; but to the north and north-east the eye

ranges over the low ground of the Campagna to the nearest line of the Apennines, which closes up, as with a gigantic wall, all the Sabine, Latin, and Volscian lowlands, while over it are still distinctly to be seen the high summits of the central Apennines, covered with snow, even at this day, for more than six months in the year. South and south-west lies the wide plain of the Campagna; its level line succeeded by the equally level line of the sea, which can only be distinguished from it by the brighter light reflected from its waters. Eastward, after ten miles of plain, the view is bounded by the Alban hills, a cluster of high bold points rising out of the Campagna, on the highest of which (about three thousand feet) stood the temple of Jupiter Latiarius, the scene of the common worship of all the people of the Latin name. Immediately under this highest point lies the crater-like basin of the Alban lake; and on its nearer rim might be seen the trees of the grove of Ferentia, where the Latins held the great civil assemblies of their nation. Further to the north, on the edge of the Alban hills, looking towards Rome, was the town and citadel of Tusculum; and beyond this, a lower summit crowned with the walls and towers of Labicum, seems to connect the Alban hills with the line of the Apennines, just at the spot where the citadel of Præneste, high up on the mountain-side, marks the opening into the country of the Hernicans, and into the valleys of the streams that feed the Lyris.

Returning nearer to Rome, the lowland country of the Campagna is broken by long green swelling ridges. The streams are dull and sluggish, but the hill sides above them constantly break away into little rock cliffs, where on every ledge the wild fig now strikes out its branches, and tufts of broom are clustering, but which in old times formed the natural strength of the citadels of the numerous cities of Latium. Except in these narrow dells, the present aspect of the country is all bare and desolate, with no trees nor any human habitation. But anciently, in the early times of Rome, it was full of independent cities, and in its population and the careful cultivation of its little garden-like farms, must have resembled the most flourishing parts of Lombardy. Such was Rome, and such its neighbourhood.

The foregoing topographical observations appear to be necessary, before the reader enters upon even a brief recital of any of those circumstances which—whether legendary or strictly true, whether fabulous or merely exaggerated—have been handed down from age to age as the veritable history of Rome. We are told, in the first place, that Æneas, after the destruction of Troy, having arrived in Italy, married Lavinia, the daughter of Latinus, fifth king of the Latins, and succeeded his father-in-law, after having deprived Turnus, king of the Rutuli, first of his sceptre and then of his life. Ascanius, after the death of Æneas, his father, united with it the kingdom of Alba, of which he was the founder. We cannot, however, proceed without remarking, that whatever relates to the origin of Rome is attended with the greatest uncertainty; and that the records of some of the ancient writers are more worthy of a place in the Æneid of Virgil, than the page of history. In illustration of this remark, we shall take the liberty of quoting the "Legend of Romulus."

"Numitor was the eldest son of Procras, king of Alba Longa, and he had a younger brother called Amulius. When Procras died, Amulius seized by force on the kingdom, and left to Numitor only his share of his father's private inheritance. After this he caused Numitor's only son to be slain, and made his daughter Silvia become one of the virgins who watched the ever-burning fire of the goddess Vesta. But the god Mamers, who is called also Mars, beheld the virgin and loved her, and it was found that she was going to become the mother of children. Then Amulius ordered that the children, when born, should be thrown into the river. It happened that the river at that time had flooded the country; when, therefore,

the two children in their basket were thrown into the river, the water carried them as far as the foot of the Palatine hill, and there the basket was upset, near the roots of a wild fig tree, and the children thrown out upon land. At this moment there came a she-wolf down to the water to drink, and when she saw the children, she carried them to her cave hard by, and gave them suck; and while they were there, a woodpecker came backwards and forwards to the cave, and brought them food. At last one Faustulus, the king's herdsman, saw the wolf suckling the children; and when he went up, the wolf left them and fled; so he took them home to his wife Laurentia, and they were bred up along with her own sons on the Palatine hill; and they were called Romulus and Remus.

"When Romulus and Remus grew up, the herdsmen of the Palatine hill chanced to have a quarrel with the herdsmen of Numitor, who stalled their cattle on the hill of Aventinus. Numitor's herdsmen laid an ambush, and Remus fell into it, and was taken and carried off to Alba. But when the young man was brought before Numitor, he was struck with his noble air and bearing, and asked him who he was. And when Remus told him of his birth, and how he had been saved from death, together with his brother, Numitor marvelled, and thought whether this might not be his own daughter's child. In the meanwhile, Faustulus and Romulus hastened to Alba, to deliver Remus; and by the help of the young men of the Palatine hill, who had been used to follow him and his brother, Romulus took the city, and Amulius was killed; and Numitor was made king, and owned Romulus and Remus to be born of his own blood. The two brothers did not wish to live at Alba, but loved rather the hill on the banks of the Tiber, where they had been brought up. So they said that they would build a city there; and they inquired of the gods by augury, to know which of them should give his name to the city. They watched the heavens from morning till evening, and from evening till morning; and as the sun was rising, Remus saw six vultures. This was told to Romulus; but as they were telling him, behold there appeared to him twelve vultures. Then it was disputed again, which had seen the truest sign of the god's favour; but the most part gave their voices for Romulus. So he began to build his city on the Palatine hill. This made Remus very angry; and when he saw the ditch and the rampart which were drawn round the space where the city was to be, he scornfully leapt over them, saying, 'Shall such defences as these keep your city?' As he did this, Celer, who had the charge of the building, struck Remus with the spade which he held in his hand, and slew him; and they buried him on the hill Remuria, by the banks of the Tiber, on the spot where he had wished to build the city.

"But Romulus found that his people were too few in numbers; so he set apart a place of refuge, to which any man might flee, and be safe from his pursuers. So many fled thither from the countries round about; those who had shed blood, and fled from the vengeance of the avenger of blood; those who were driven out from their own homes by their enemies, and even men of low degree who had run away from their lords. Thus the city became full of people; but yet they wanted wives, and the nations round about would not give them their daughters in marriage. So Romulus gave out that he was going to keep a great festival, and there were to be sports and games to draw a multitude together. The neighbours came to see the show, with their wives and their daughters; there came the people of Cænina, and of Crustumerium, and of Antemna, and a great multitude of the Sabines. But while they were looking at the games, the people of Romulus rushed out upon them, and carried off the women to be their wives. Upon this the people of Cænina first made war upon the people of Romulus; but they were beaten, and Romulus with his own

hand slew their king Acron. Next the people of Crustumerium, and of Antemna, tried their fortune, but Romulus conquered both of them. Last of all came the Sabines, with a great army under Titus Tatius, their king. There is a hill near to the Tiber, which was divided from the Palatine hill by a low and swampy valley; and on this hill Romulus made a fortress, to keep off the enemy from his city. But when the fair Tarpeia, the daughter of the chief who had charge of the fortress, saw the Sabines draw near, and marked their bracelets and collars of gold, she longed after these ornaments, and promised to betray the hill into their hands if they would give her those bright things they wore upon their arms. So she opened a gate, and let in the Sabines; and they, as they came in, threw upon her their bright shields which they bore on their arms, and crushed her to death. Thus the Sabines got the fortress which was on the hill Saturnius; and they and the Romans joined battle in the valley between the hill and the city of Romulus. The Sabines began to get the better, and came up close to one of the gates of the city. The people of Romulus shut the gate, but it opened of its own accord; once and again they shut it, and once and again it opened. But as the Sabines were rushing in, behold there burst forth from the temple of Janus, which was near the gate, a mighty stream of water, and swept away the Sabines, and saved the city. For this it was ordered that the temple of Janus should stand ever open in the time of war, that the god might be ever ready, as on this day, to go out and give aid to the people of Romulus.

"After this they fought again in the valley; and the people of Romulus were beginning to flee, when Romulus prayed to Jove, the stayer of flight, that he might stay the people; and so their flight was stayed, and they turned again to battle. And now the fight was fiercer than ever: when, on a sudden, the Sabine women, who had been carried off, ran down from the hill Palatinus, and ran in between their husbands and their fathers, and prayed them to lay aside their quarrel. So they made peace with one another, and the two people became as one: the Sabines with their king dwelt on the hill Saturnius, which is called Capitolium, and on the hill Quirinalis; and the people of Romulus with their king dwelt on the hill Palatinus. But the kings with their counsellors met in the valley between Saturnius and Palatinus, to consult about their common matters; and the place where they met was called Comitium, which means 'the place of meeting.' Soon after this, Tatius was slain by the people of Laurentum, because some of his kinsmen had wronged them, and he would not do them justice. So Romulus reigned by himself over both nations; and his own people were called the Romans, for Roma was the name of the city on the hill Palatinus: and the Sabines were called Quirites, for the name of their city on the hills Saturnius and Quirinalis was Quirium. The people were divided into three tribes; the Ramnenses, and the Titienses, and the Luceres: the Ramnenses were called from Romulus, and the Titienses from Tatius; and the Luceres were called from Lucumo, an Etruscan chief, who had come to help Romulus in his war with the Sabines, and dwelt on the hill called Cælius. In each tribe there were ten curiæ, each of one hundred men; so all the men of the three tribes were three thousand, and these fought on foot, and were called a legion. There were also three hundred horsemen, and these were called Celerians, because their chief was that Celer who had slain Remus. There was besides a council of two hundred men, which was called a senate, that is, a council of elders. Romulus was a just king, and gentle to his people: if any were guilty of crimes, he did not put them to death, but made them pay a fine of sheep orof oxen. In his wars he was very successful, and enriched his people with the spoils of their enemies. At last, after he had reigned nearly forty years, it chanced that one day he called his people together in the field of Mars, near the Goats

Pool; when, all on a sudden, there arose a dreadful storm, and all was dark as night; and the rain, and thunder and lightning, were so terrible, that all the people fled from the field, and ran to their several homes. At last the storm was over, and they came back to the field of Mars, but Romulus was nowhere to be found; for Mars, his father, had carried him up to heaven in his chariot. The people knew not at first what had become of him; but when it was night, as one Proculus Julius was coming from Alba to the city, Romulus appeared to him in more than mortal beauty, and grown to more than mortal stature, and said to him, 'Go, tell my people that they weep not for me any more; but bid them be brave and warlike, and so shall they make my city the greatest in the earth.' Then the people knew that Romulus was become a god; so they built a temple to him, and offered sacrifice to him, and worshipped him evermore by the name of the god Quirinus."

But to quit the hyperbole of legendary lore and speak in plain terms, it amounts to this—Romulus, the grandson of Numitor, king of the Latins, joined with his brother Remus in an attempt to re-establish his grandfather in the possession of his throne, and Amulius, the usurper, was put to death. Having thus far succeeded, the two young heroes next assembled a number of the lowest orders of the people, and built a city on the Aventine hill, to which Romulus gave his name; and soon after becoming jealous of his brother, caused him to be assassinated.

We turn to the pages of Dr. Arnold, who, after referring those who desire to go deeply into the whole question, to the 'immortal work of Niebuhr,' very justly observes, that "the first question in the history of every people is, what was their race and language? the next, what was the earliest form of their society, their social and political organization?"

"The language of the Romans was not called Roman, but Latin. Politically, Rome and Latium were clearly distinguished, but their language appears to have been the same. This language is different from the Etruscan, and from the Oscan; thus the Romans are marked out as distinct from the great nations of central Italy, whether Etruscans, Umbrians, Sabines, or Samnites. On the other hand, the connection of the Latin language with the Greek is manifest. Many common words, which no nation ever derives from the literature of another, are the same in Greek and Latin; the declensions of the nouns and verbs are, to a great degree, similar. It is probable that the Latins belonged to that great race which, in very early times, overspread both Greece and Italy, under the various names of Pelasgians, Tyrsenians, and Siculians. It may be believed, that the Hellenians were anciently a people of this same race, but that some peculiar circumstances gave to them a distinct and superior character, and raised them so far above their brethren, that, in after ages, they disclaimed all connection with them. But in the Latin language there is another element besides that which it has in common with the Greek. This element belongs to the languages of central Italy, and may be called Oscan. The terms relating to agriculture and domestic life are mostly derived from the Greek part of the language; those relating to arms and war are mostly Oscan. It seems, then, not only that the Latins were a mixed people, but that they arose out of a conquest of the Pelasgians by the Oscans; so that the latter were the ruling class of the united nation, the former its subjects. The Latin language, then, may afford us a clue to the origin of the Latin people, and so far to that of the Romans. But it does not explain the difference between Romans and Latins, to which the peculiar fates of the Roman people owe their origin. We must inquire, then, what the Romans were which the other Latins were not; and as language cannot aid us here, we must have recourse to other assistance, to geography and national traditions. And thus, at the same time, we shall arrive at an answer to the second question in Roman his-

tory, what was the earliest form of civil society at Rome? If we look at the map, we shall see that Rome lies at the farthest extremity of Latium, divided from Etruria only by the Tiber, and having the Sabines close on the north, between the Tiber and the Anio. No other Latin town, so far as we know, was built on the Tiber; some were clustered on and round the Alban hills, others lined the coast of the Mediterranean; but from all these Rome, by its position, stoop aloof. Tradition reports that as Rome was thus apart from the rest of the Latin cities, and so near a neighbour to the Etruscans and Sabines, so its population was in part formed out of these nations, and many of its rites and institutions borrowed from the other. Tradition describes the very first founders of the city as the shepherds and herdsmen of the banks of the Tiber, and tells how their numbers were presently swelled by strangers and outcasts from all the countries about. It speaks of a threefold division of the Roman people, in the very earliest age of its history; the tribes of the Ramnenses, Titienses, and Luceres. It distinctly acknowledges the Titienses to have been Sabines; and in some of its guesses at the origin of the Luceres, it connects their name with that of the Etruscan Lucumones, and thus supposes them to have been composed of Etruscans. We know that for all points o detail, and for keeping a correct account of time, tradition is worthless. It is very possible that all the Etruscan rites and usages came in with the Tarquinii, and were falsely carried back to an earlier period. But the mixture of Sabines with the original people of the Palatine hill, cannot be doubted; and the stories of the asylum, and of the violence done to the Sabine women, seem to shew that the first settlers of the Palatine were a mixed race, in which other blood was largely mingled with that of the Latins. We may conceive of this earlier people of Mamers, as of the Mamertini of a more historical period: that they were a band of resolute adventurers from various parts, practised in arms, and little scrupulous how they used them. Thus the origin of the highest Roman nobility greatly resembled that of the larger band of adventurers who followed the standard of William the Norman, and were the founders of the nobility of England. The people or citizens of Rome, were divided into the three tribes of the Ramnenses, Titienses, and Luceres, from whatever circumstances they may have risen. Each of these tribes was divided into ten smaller bodies called curiæ; so that the whole people consisted of thirty curiæ: the same divisions were in war represented by the thirty centuries which made up the legion, just as the three tribes were represented by the three centuries of horsemen; but that the soldiers of each century were exactly a hundred, is apparently unfounded.

We see, then, that this city, which afterward became the mistress of the world, was at this time but a large village. Its principal inhabitants laboured with the plough in an unproductive soil. Every one made choice of the spot he meant to cultivate; and, until the taking of Rome by the Gauls, 364 years after its foundation, it was rather to be called a mass of separated dwellings than a regularly built city. Whereas, the circumference of the walls, in the time of Augustus, was thirty thousand paces, without including the part that approached the Tiber, which was twenty thousand; independent, also, of the suburbs. Its embellishments were superb and prodigious. But to return to the first foundation of Rome. There were very few women at this time among the Romans; and their neighbours being unwilling to marry their daughters to these heroic robbers, Romulus caused public games to be exhibited, at which many of the Sabine women were present, who were seized by the Romans. This conduct produced a war between the two nations, which terminated in their union. Romulus being acknowledged king, endeavoured to civilize his new subjects; and, having ascertained their number, which was 3,000 men, he divided them into three tribes of 1,000 each, and each tribe into

ten curiæ of 100 each. He employed by turns force and address to complete the work he had begun: he formed a body of cavalry, consisting of three hundred men; and chose for his council one hundred old men, or at least such as had experience to recommend them. To these he gave the name of senators. Romulus governed happily during five years with Tatius, whom he had associated in the government: but Tatius being killed at Lavinium, Romulus was left sole possessor of the sovereign power. He conquered the Fidenæ and the Veientes; and cemented, by salutary laws, the strength and tranquility of Rome; but afterward, aiming to become a despot, he was assassinated in the senate.

After an interregnum, Numa Pompilius was elected king. The amiable and humane disposition of this prince softened the warlike and ferocious temper of the Romans. To restain them from outrage and barbarity, he pretended to have received his instruction from the nymph Egeria; an artifice which had the desired effect. His reign was pacific throughout: he inspired the people with a love of religion and peace; he encouraged agriculture; amended the calendar; moderated the laws relative to paternal authority; created the pontiffs, the vestals, &c., and died justly regretted by the people, who lamented him as a father and a king. It was Numa who established the different religious ceremonies and orders of priests; namely, thirty curiones, or priests of the curiæ, one for each; three flamens, or priests of Jupiter, Mars, and Quirinus; three hundred celeres, or sacrificers; a body of augurs, who interpreted signs, dreams, &c.; four vestal virgins, priestesses of Vesta, leading a life of continence, and preserving a perpetual fire in the temple of the goddess; the salii, who had charge of twelve sacred shields, suspended in the temple of Mars; feciales, or heralds; and pontifices, who presided over all religious affairs. The latter formed a college, the head of which was termed the pontifex maximus, and was generally some eminent person in the state, as the king, consul, or emperor. There was another class of ministers of religion, called haruspices, who pretended to foretell events by inspecting the entrails of beasts offered in sacrifices; but Numa did not allow such sacrifices in his reign.

Tullus Hostilius, his successor, was an ambitious and intrepid prince, who delighted in war; he defeated the Fidenates and the Sabines, and demolished Alba. The Horatii and the Curatii were chosen to fight three against three: two of the Horatii being killed, the remaining one had recourse to stratagem, and by that means conquered his adversaries: after having gained the victory, he killed his sister for shedding tears for one of the Curatii. Tullus Hostilius is said to have died by a thunderbolt, but more probably by conspiracy. The fine disposition of Numa reappeared in Ancus Martius, a friend to the arts, to religion, and to peace. The Latins, mistaking the character of Ancus, made war upon him; but were soon taught that he was equally capable of humbling his enemies as of making his people happy; he subdued the Veientes, the Fidenates, and the Volscians. He embellished Rome, built public prisons, and founded the port of Ostia. Tarquin the Elder, descended from an illustrious family of Corinth, was elected as the successor of Ancus. The introduction of plebeians into the senate, the decoration of Rome with superb edifices, and the foundation of the capitol, were the principal events of his reign. Servius Tullius, a man of obscure birth, succeeded Tarquin in the Roman throne. He subdued the enemies of Rome, enacted salutary laws, enlarged the city, established quit-rents, and a body of magistrates to judge particular causes. Having formed the design of making his subjects free, it was his intention to change the form of government from a monarchy to that of a republic; but, being murdered by Tarquin, who succeeded him on the throne, this generous resolution was prevented from fulfilment. He reigned gloriously, and cemented the union between Rome and the

neighbouring states. He was the first Roman king who stamped coin. Tarquin the Superb, a proud and ferocious tyrant, mounted the throne after having murdered Servius Tullius, his wife's father. He formed projects disgraceful to his country. He delighted in luxury and debauchery; paying little regard to the established laws, he oppressed the people and endeavoured to destroy the senate, a body instituted with so much wisdom, and who already began to be the immovable rampart of the liberty of the people. The Romans in this reign triumphed over the Sabines and the Volscians, and finished the capitol. The excesses and despotism of Tarquin and his sons increased so much the public hatred against him, that he was precipitated from a throne which he disgraced.

It is observable, in this sketch of the Roman history, that the Greeks were, in every respect, superior to the Romans when their state was in its infancy; the Romans never quitting their huts upon the seven hills, but to make captives of women, and pillage the neighbouring villages. The Greeks, on the contrary, were occupied in defending their liberties: they repulsed large armies and fleets of the Persians; and they cultivated and brought to perfection the fine arts, of which the Romans were almost totally ignorant until the time of Scipio Africanus. The ferocity and spirit of rapine which prevailed among the first Romans, one might suppose would have induced the surrounding nations to exterminate them: but the necessities which urged them to commit depredations, animated their courage, and rendered their acts of injustice irresistible. They were successful in war, from being inured to it; and, at the end of four centuries, they had conquered all the nations from the Adriatic Gulf to the river Euphrates.

The Roman Republic.

This republic, hereafter so celebrated, commenced with the expulsion of Tarquin, the last king of Rome; and it having been declared by the senate that he had forfeited the royal dignity, they elected two chief magistrates, called consuls, whose power was to last only one year. The consuls had several other magistrates subordinate to them, such as prætors, magistrates whose office it was to render justice: tribunes, the magistrates of the people: they might oppose all the resolutions of the other magistrates, and their persons were held sacred and inviolable: quæstors, officers who took charge of the public money: ædiles, officers who superintended the buildings, and the exhibition of public games: censors, officers whose business it was to rate the people, and inspect and correct their manners: proconsuls, magistrates commissioned to govern provinces with consular authority; and, on particular occasions, a dictator was appointed, who possessed sovereign authority.

This revolution was the epoch of the glory of Rome. Each consul exerted himself for the benefit of his country during his short administration, in order to merit a future election; but the jealousy of the people demonstrated itself from the first consulates. Valerius, famous for his victories, became suspected; and, to satisfy the plebeians, a law was made, which permitted an appeal to the people, after condemnation from the senate and consuls, in all cases where the punishment of a Roman citizen was intended. In the meantime the Tarquins were busy in soliciting the neighbouring nations to avenge their quarrel. Porsenna, king of Etruria, marched against Rome, and reduced it to the greatest extremities, but the spirit shown by the republicans astonished their enemies, who could no longer resist their impetuosity; and from this time the Tarquins lost all hope. The jealousy which had hitherto subsisted between the patricians and the plebeians augmented rather than abated; the latter

thought the power invested in the consuls too great, although it had been considerably lessened by the Valerian law. They accordingly retired to the sacred mountain, and violent measures were used in vain to reduce them; but the mild and simple eloquence of Menenius Agrippa induced them to listen to terms of accomodation. They demanded a magistrate, whose business it should be to keep a watchful eye over their interests, and defend them against the intrigues of the consuls and the senate; accordingly, tribunes were created, and established by a law, denominated sacred, and which in some measure relieved them from the yoke of aristocracy, now become nearly as heavy as the despotism of their kings.

The Roman people continued to be everywhere successful in battle; but their intestine divisions brought them frequently into the most imminent danger. Coriolanus, one of the most illustrious generals, was banished by a popular faction, and his services wholly forgotten. Enraged at their ingratitude, he put himself at the head of the Volscians, marched against his country, and would probably have become its conqueror, had it not been that the entreaties of his mother prevailed on him to desist from his enterprise. Spurius Cassius, aspiring at tyranny, proposed the agrarian law, and thereby opened a new source of discord; he was thrown from the Tarpeian rock, the death destined for the punishment of traitors. Soon after this, Cincinnatus quitted his plough for the good of the republic; he left his field for the city; and his peaceful rustic employment for the rude clamour of war. This celebrated character suppressed, during the consulate, the factions of the tribunes; and, while dictator, defeated the enemies of the republic. After having performed several other actions which added glory to his character, he augmented it by another superior to them all; that of returning to his plough without ambition, but with the honest pride of having served his country.

The imperfection of the laws in a nation so addicted to war as the Romans, obliged the people of Rome to borrow, from those of Athens, the laws of Solon. The *decemvirs*, to whom the examination of these laws was committed, adopted those which appeared to them most eligible; profiting by the sagacity of the Greeks, as the Greeks had done by the Egyptians. After having digested them, they delayed to put them in force, and governed with despotic authority. The ill success against the Æquites and Sabines; the murder of Siccius Dentatus, a man of great valour, but obscure birth, who had opposed their tyranny; the reciprocal hatred subsisting between the army and the senate; and, lastly, the death of Virginia, stabbed by her father to save her from the dishonour intended her by Appius, gave the finishing blow to their power and despotism; and the same crime which had proved fatal to monarchy, was the ruin of the decemvirate.

The consuls and the military tribunes succeeded each other alternately during seventy-eight years, in which time the enemies of Rome reaped considerable advantages from their internal dissensions. Camillus, who opposed the tribunes concerning the agrarian law, was banished. Rome was soon after attacked by the Gauls, who plundered and burnt great part of it. Camillus was recalled, and made dictator: he entirely defeated the invaders; and Rome arose from its ashes with additional splendour. The people, prompted by the tribunes, were on the point of quitting Rome, and transferring the republic to the Veientes; but Camillus opposed the design, and turned their restless thoughts toward military achievements. He began with the Samnites, a fierce and warlike nation, hitherto unconquered. A long and bloody war took place. The senate punished, with extreme severity, the treason of some of the Roman troops, who, charmed with the climate of Padua, where they lay in garrison, formed a design of murdering the inhabitants, and establishing themselves in the possession of their country. Manlius had his son put to death, although

a conqueror, for fighting without orders. About the same time the famous war of Tarentum called the celebrated Pyrrhus into Italy. Active and restless, he was continually forming schemes, and occupied himself more in the affairs of others than in his own. He was a perfect master of the military art, but totally ignorant of that of governing. In addition to the opposition of his army to that of the Roman, he introduced elephants into the field, which being new to the Roman troops, was the cause of their discomfiture. But, being aware of the unconquerable spirit of his opponents, he solicited an alliance with them through the means of the orator Cyneas. He attempted to corrupt, by presents, the virtue of Fabricius. He passed into Sicily, with a view to succour that island against the Carthaginians. And afterwards returning to Italy, he abandoned them entirely, filled with veneration for a people whose courage and constancy he was unable even to shake.

Rome now began to fix the attention of strangers. It received ambassadors from, and accepted an alliance with, Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, the enlightened protector of the arts and sciences. About this time luxury was first introduced among the Roman people, the source of all their future misfortunes. It destroyed republican virtue; it debilitated their courage; and was thus, eventually, the cause of the downfall of Rome. The siege of Messina by the Carthaginians, and their union with Hiero, king of Syracuse, caused the first Punic war. Hiero soon after formed an alliance with the Romans, and remained ever after faithful to their cause. The love of glory rendered them as unconquerable on the sea as they had before been on the land. Sicily, the object of their ambition, was the witness of their naval victories. Africa herself trembled at the sight of her fleets. However, Xantippus, the Lacedemonian, whom the Carthaginians, with the basest ingratitude, deprived of his life, defeated and made prisoner the brave but unfortunate Regulus. The Carthaginians demanded peace, and Regulus himself, who was one of the ambassadors, opposed the treaty, and fell a victim to the love of his country: he returned to Carthage to meet the most horrid death that enraged Carthaginians could inflict. Hamilcar was afterwards defeated, which terminated the first Punic war.

The siege and conquest of Saguntum, a city in alliance with the Romans, gave birth to the second Punic war. Hannibal, already famous for his brilliant success in Spain, who had from his infancy been taught to regard the Romans with detestation, advanced towards Italy at the head of an army; crossed the Rhone; traversed the Alps in the midst of winter; defeated Scipio on the banks of the Vesin; was conqueror at Trebia, Thrasymenus, and Cannæ; and filled Rome itself with alarm. The pleasures of Capua, it is said, where he had the imprudence to winter, saved Rome from destruction. It gave the Romans time to recover from the consternation which his rapid progress had occasioned; they collected all their force, and rose more terrible than ever, by their constancy, their discipline, their courage, and their policy. Their numerous victories astonished Spain and Sicily. They declared war against Philip, the ally of Carthage; took Syracuse, Agrigentum, and Capua; defeated Asdrubal; and all Spain submitted to the younger Scipio. This general went into Africa, and, by his successes, obliged Hannibal to quit Europe, and return home. The interview between these two great generals hastened the battle of Zama, where every manœuvre in the art of war was displayed. Scipio was the conqueror, and the Roman senate dictated the conditions of peace. This victory augmented the already immoderate ambition of Rome, which threatened the world with slavery.

Hannibal, after having passed some time at the court of Antiochus, king of Syria, whom he had engaged to declare war against the Romans, returned to Bithynia; but fearing that he should be delivered up to his in-

veterate enemy, he put an end to his existence by poison. The war with Philip, king of Macedon, and afterwards with Perseus, his son, was a remarkable epoch. Philip, after having suffered great loss, made peace with the Romans; but Perseus, with a view of recovering back what his father had lost, renewed a war which deprived him both of liberty and life, and reduced the kingdom to a Roman province. Antiochus, king of Syria, who had declared war against the Romans in compliance with the wishes of Hannibal, was likewise obliged, in order to obtain peace, to cede all the country he possessed on the western side of Mount Taurus.

The Romans beheld with pain the existence of Carthage, and eagerly sought an occasion to commence hostilities. An opportunity soon presented itself. The Carthaginians being at war with Massinissa, king of Numidia, the Romans armed in his favour, and sent a strong force against Carthage itself. The Carthaginians defended themselves courageously; but the Roman commander, Publius Cornelius Scipio, becoming master of it, reduced it to ashes, and carried with him its riches to Rome. Thus ended the third Punic war; and thus fell Carthage, the ancient and powerful rival of Rome, B. C. 147. Carthage was originally a colony from Tyre, founded on the coast of Africa, about 70 years before the foundation of the city of Rome. It was a commonwealth, governed by a senate and magistrates, annually elected; and had risen to great wealth and power by its commercial enterprise, at the commencement of hostilities with Rome. Upon a philosophical examination of these two republics, it will be found that a variety of causes contributed to give Rome the superiority over Carthage:—1st. Two opposing parties continually divided the senate of Carthage: the rich were constantly advocates for peace; the poor for war, expecting thereby to enrich themselves by its spoils. 2dly. Avarice dictated all their deliberations; they conquered but to amass wealth. 3dly. Carthage, not having any allies, had not the assistance of auxiliaries. The only advantage which they possessed over the Romans, consisted in the superiority of their marine. 4thly. The state was poor, and individuals were very rich. At Rome, the love of war was the spirit that animated all orders of the state. Every man was a soldier; glory decided every thing. They were ambitious of the empire of the world; they opposed to undisciplined troops, citizens on whose courage and virtue they could depend; and they had allies without number dispersed around them. The destruction of Carthage increased the ambition of the Romans. They marched an army against the cities of Greece, which were in league against their power, and obliged them to submit; but not before the city of Corinth had been taken, and destroyed. The Spaniards, who had revolted about the same time, were defeated; and the taking of Numantia brought all Spain under their power.

To these triumphs abroad, intestine divisions often succeeded. Tiberius Gracchus, and afterwards Caius Gracchus caused the plebeians to revolt against the aristocracy. Jugurtha, king of Numidia, being dissatisfied with the manner in which Micipsa, his father, had disposed of the kingdom,—having divided it between himself and his two brothers,—caused them to be put to death; and found means, for some time, by presents, to render the Romans favourable to his schemes; but being attacked by them, Metellus took several places from him. At length, Marius, a man of obscure birth, but of great military talents, being elected consul, put an end to this war; and Jugurtha was led in captivity to Rome, where he died of hunger. Marius defeated the Teutoni, the Cimbri, and other northern nations, who had made irruptions into Gaul, Spain, and Italy; and during the war, which was carried on twelve years, signalized himself by his ability and his courage. The people of Italy took up arms against Rome, for having refused them the rights of citizenship. This insurrection was the more difficult to overcome, as the insurgents were

perfectly acquainted with the military discipline of the Romans. The senate disarmed a part of them, by an acquiescence with part of their demands; and this mistaken policy was the occasion of a civil war. It was followed by that of Mithridates of Pontus, the civil war of Marius and Sylla, and that of the gladiators. Mithridates, king of Pontus, powerful and proud, yet brave and active, and as implacable in his hatred to Rome as Hannibal, determined, if possible, to humble that haughty republic. He began by a general massacre of the Romans within his territory: he next reduced several Roman provinces in Asia, and caused a Roman general to be murdered. Sylla, the consul, was charged with the conduct of this war; but Marius, by his intrigues, not only caused him to be removed, but obtained the appointment for himself. This proceeding brought on the civil war so destructive in its consequences both to Italy and Spain: to the latter Sertorius, the partizan of Marius, had retired. Sylla joined to courage and activity immense wealth and suavity of manners, which gave him considerably the advantage over Marius, who died in the second year of the civil war. Mithridates having been defeated both by sea and land, solicited peace, which was granted to him: but Murena, one of the lieutenants of Sylla, having infringed the treaty, the war recommenced. Mithridates prevailed upon Tigranes, king of Armenia Major, to engage in the quarrel: by his assistance, he defeated the Romans, and invaded Bithynia. The consul Lucullus then marched against Mithridates, entirely disconcerted his measures, and obliged him to retire into Armenia. Two successive victories, which he gained over the Armenians, would have furnished him with the means of dictating the terms of peace, if Glabrion had not been appointed in his place. Under this consul, Mithridates recovered his losses, and ravaged Cappadocia: but Pompey, already rendered famous for his bravery in the war against the pirates of Cilicia, which he terminated in forty days, being appointed to the command, drove Mithridates out of Pontus, pursued him to Armenia, and defeated him on the banks of the Euphrates, where, in a paroxysm of despair he put an end to his existence. Thus terminated a war which had lasted, with unabating fury, twenty years. Pompey returned to Rome crowned with laurel, and possessed of immense riches.

During the time of Rome's victories abroad, great dissensions prevailed at home. The slaves, contrary to their inclinations, had been compelled to become gladiators. Spartacus, one of them, found means to escape from the school at Capua, and assemble a considerable army, whose standards bore the word, "liberty," as a motto. He defeated the Romans in several engagements; but was at length totally routed by Licinius Crassus. Spartacus, perceiving the alternative was no other than to be made a prisoner, or to die, was killed in battle, fighting heroically. A new conspiracy exposed Rome to the greatest danger. Lucius Sergius Catiline, a man of high birth, but plunged in debauchery and debt, had formed a design of becoming master of Rome. Cicero, the orator, discovered the plot. The army raised for his nefarious purpose, was routed, Catiline killed, and the greater part of his accomplices taken and beheaded. Sylla, having set a bad example, several Romans there were, who, possessing equally his ambition, but wanting his abilities, aspired at sovereign authority. But Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar, more bold and more active than their competitors, divided the government between them. This coalition was termed the first triumvirate. Cæsar, however, would have no equal; Pompey disdained to have a superior; and the rivalry of these two powerful men soon occasioned the ruin of the state. Cæsar obtained the consulate, and with it the government of Gaul for five years. Pompey and Crassus remained at Rome, while Cæsar was busied in extending his conquests, and laying the foundation of his future greatness. He attached Pompey to his interests, by giving him his daughter in mar-

riage; and, joining valour with policy, he signalized himself by the greatest military enterprises. He defeated the Swiss, who had endeavoured to establish themselves in Franche Comté; subdued Ariovistus, king of the Germans, who had invaded that province; conquered the Belgians or Flemings, and reduced with wonderful facility the whole of Gaul. He invaded Britain, and imposed a tribute upon the inhabitants. All these achievements were performed in the space of eight years. Crassus having been killed in a battle with the Parthians, and the daughter of Cæsar, the wife of Pompey, being dead, Pompey beheld with a jealous eye the brilliant actions of his father-in-law, and sought by every means in his power, to render him obnoxious to the people; he even endeavoured to deprive him of his government. Cæsar, assured of the fidelity of his troops, marched directly to Rome, when Pompey and his partizans immediately abandoned it.

Cæsar had now become a perpetual dictator; he gained the people by his bounties, by his valour, and his wisdom, and intimidated his enemies. He pursued Pompey to Greece. After several events, those great rivals met on the plains of Pharsalia; and victory declared in favour of Cæsar, who was as remarkable for his clemency after the battle, as he had been for his bravery during the engagement. The vanquished Pompey retired into Egypt. Ptolemy, king of that country, thinking thereby to make his court to Cæsar, had him assassinated, and sent his head to that conqueror, who could not refrain from shedding tears to the memory of so great a man. It was at this period that Cæsar became acquainted with Cleopatra, whom he caused to be proclaimed queen of Egypt, her brother, Ptolemy, having been drowned in the Nile. He marched against Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, whom he conquered with so much ease that he thought three words were sufficient to announce his victory—"*Veni, vidi, vici.*" Two sons of Pompey endeavoured to revenge the death of their father; but fortune was unpropitious to their designs; after an obstinate battle, their army was defeated. Caius Pompey, the eldest son, was killed; and it was with extreme difficulty that the youngest escaped the hands of the conqueror. It was in this war that Cato, disdaining to survive liberty, put an end to his existence at Utica. Cæsar returned to Italy; but, inflated with his extraordinary success, displayed more ostentation and pride than he had hitherto done. Rome groaned under the intolerable yoke he had imposed; and a conspiracy having been formed against him, he was assassinated by Brutus in the senate.

Lepidus and Antony, lieutenants of Cæsar, breathed extreme vengeance. Antony examined the will of the dictator; and by it he had adopted Octavius, the son of his sister Julia. He bequeathed his gardens to the people, and a sum of money to each particular citizen. There were likewise legacies to several of the conspirators, particularly to Brutus, with reversion to Octavius. The funeral oration delivered on this occasion, the appearance of the veteran soldiers in tears, who threw their arms and crowns upon the funeral pile of their illustrious general, and the cries of the Roman ladies, transported the people with rage against the conspirators, whose houses and property they burnt. It was thus that the people laid the foundation of their future misery and slavery. Octavius, who was in Greece at the time of his uncle's murder, did not, on his return to Rome, find Antony disposed to relinquish the power he had assumed in his absence. Brutus possessed the government of Gaul, which Antony now obtained of the people, contrary to the will of the senate, and he marched, aided by Octavius, against Brutus, in order to dispossess him thereof by force. This conduct offended the senators. Antony being defeated, went to Lepidus, then in Gaul; and the senate confirmed Brutus in his office. Octavius, highly offended at this action of the senate, formed an alliance with Antony and Lepidus; and this union formed the second

triumvirate. It was agreed between them, that Italy, and the coast, should be in common; that Antony should command in Gaul, Lepidus in Spain, and Octavius in Africa and Sicily. Lepidus remained at Rome to defend Italy; while Antony and Octavius were employed in combating Cassius and Brutus. Thus all their common enemies were immolated in the cause of the triumvirate, and their particular friends were sacrificed to the resentment of each triumvir. Octavius destroyed Cicero. His head and hands being severed from his body, were fastened to the tribune, where that great orator had so often astonished Rome by his eloquence. Antony abandoned his uncle, Lepidus his brother. Three hundred senators, and four thousand knights, were proscribed. Thus Rome became the theatre of horror and infamy; and the cruelties were renewed that had been heretofore practised in the contest between Marius and Sylla.

In the meantime, Cassius and Brutus were defeated at Philippi: and each of them put an end to his existence, in order to avoid falling into the hands of the conqueror. Octavius returned to Rome; Antony went into Asia. He there cited Cleopatra to appear before his tribunal, for having taken part with the assassins of Cæsar; becoming enamoured with her beauty, he sacrificed thereto his glory and his interest. He did not return to Italy for upwards of a year, when he married Octavia, sister to Octavius, and widow of Marcellus. A new division of the empire now took place; all the eastern parts were ceded to Antony, the western to Octavius, and Africa to Lepidus, who contested Sicily with Octavius. Lepidus, deserted by his friends, was exiled to a small town in Latium. Antony, fascinated by the charms of Cleopatra, employed his time in giving superb entertainments, instead of attending to the concerns of his army. He endeavoured to justify his conduct to the senate; but they were incensed at his neglect, and declared war against him. The armies met at Actium, where Octavius gained that celebrated victory, which made him master of the whole Roman republic. Cleopatra, alarmed, set sail for the Peloponnesus; and Antony abandoned his fleet, and the empire of half the world, to accompany his mistress to Egypt. Being pursued by his conqueror, he fell upon his sword, and thereby put an end to his life. Cleopatra shut herself within the temple of Antony, where she applied an asp to her bosom, and expired at the base of the statue of her infatuated admirer. Octavius now returned to Rome, and had a public triumph during three days. Having become sole master, he feigned a desire to resign his authority, and demanded the advice of Agrippa and Mecænas. The former advised him to re-establish the republic; but the opinion of the latter being contrary, and Octavius abiding by it, the slavery of Rome was decided. He left some appearance of authority yet in the hands of the senate, in dividing with them the provinces of the empire; but reserved to himself all those in which the troops were stationed, that he might at all times be master of the army. Thus commenced the mightiest monarchy that any age has produced.

It will, perhaps, be interesting to investigate the cause of the astonishing and rapid elevation of the Roman empire. 1st. The indignity with which they treated all those whom the fortune of war had placed within their power; being as ambitious of becoming masters of their persons as of their dominions, in order that they might load them with chains, drag them in triumph after their chariots, and put them to ignominious deaths; and as these princes were, almost without exception, devoted to luxury and effeminacy, they beheld Rome with terror and humility; and the presence of an army of veterans was enough to reduce them to servitude. 2nd. Experience having taught the Roman senate how much the people of Europe were better adapted to war than those of Asia, it prohibited entirely the people of Asia from coming into Europe, and the Europeans from going into Asia. 3rd. The extent of their jurisdiction being all the

then known world, the senate decided, before their own tribunals, all the quarrels which took place between the dependent kings and their subjects, and between different nations. These they terminated according to their pleasure, always enfeebling those from whom they had anything to fear; and, on the contrary, supporting those from whom they had anything to hope. 4th. When any two nations, over whose quarrels the senate had no immediate right of decision, commenced war with each other, the Romans always declared themselves in favour of the weaker party, whether their assistance had been inplored or not. The stronger being reduced, the one through fear, and the other through gratitude, submitted to chains imposed by the conqueror. They then assumed to themselves the titles of protectors of the distressed, supporters of the weak, and the avengers of wrongs; and these brilliant titles contributed as much to extend and confirm their authority, as it made them beloved by those whom they had it in their power to serve, and feared by those who dreaded their punishment. 5th. The senate always accustomed itself to speak in the haughtiest manner to the ambassadors of the different nations to whom they gave audience; and if, in return, the Romans were treated with contempt, they complained loudly of the violation of their rights, and of the insult offered to the majesty of the Roman people. Thus they declared war against those who would not submit to their insolence or flatter their pride. 6th. When they were determined to make war upon any nation, they allied themselves with some of their neighbours, at whose charge it was carried on. They always had in their neighbourhood a second army, before they risked a battle with the first; and a third in Rome, ready upon all occasions; these important precautions rendered their legions inexhaustible. 7th. When they foresaw a probability of having to encounter two nations at the same time, they negotiated with the weakest, who generally accepted, with avidity, the offer of peace. It was, therefore, very difficult to form a powerful league against the Romans, because, as they were implacable in their resentments against their enemies, they intimidated, by their approach, all those who had formed plans inimical to the interest of the republic. The senate, although proud, and addicted to vengeance, were, nevertheless, perfect masters of the art of dissimulation, when it was not in their power to revenge an injury: they sometimes even refused sufficient satisfaction when offered it, at a time they were otherwise employed, that the right of reprisal might still remain, and which they intended to exercise, when a more favourable opportunity presented itself. Thus they never made war but when it was convenient to their interests. 8th. If any general, after having received a check, made an inglorious peace, the senate always refused to ratify it. Thus the prisoners of war, which the conquerors had spared, and released upon their parole, appeared again in arms under a new chief. These were the more terrible, as they had to efface, by their valour, the disgrace which they had formerly sustained. The general who was the author of the treaty, was delivered up to the enemy; and this was termed, by the senate, a respect to the rights of the people. 9th. If, on the contrary, the enemy, enfeebled by defeat, demanded peace, the senate appeared satisfied with the conditions they offered, and accepted their terms: in the meantime, having rectified their legions, they would express a dislike to some of the articles of the negotiation, and offer others with which they knew the enemy would not comply. The war then recommenced; and the enemy, in hopes of peace, having neglected their army, were presently subdued. 10th. When the Romans were at war with a prince, if his children betrayed him, his subjects revolted, or his allies deserted him, the senate afforded them an asylum, and declared them their allies: this title rendered sacred all those who received it, and it protected them in the commission of all crimes that might be useful to the state. 11th. Every treaty of peace

was concluded with an alliance; that is to say, an honorable servitude; because the allies of Rome were obliged to assist her in all her wars, and could not undertake any without her participation, and against her enemies. Thus one nation conquered another, weakening themselves, and strengthening Rome. This species of alliance was, nevertheless, courted, as the Romans would not suffer any other nation to oppose those whom they protected. 12th. The first condition of every treaty, was a stipulation for a tribute to Rome; with which, however exorbitant, the other contracting party was obliged to comply, or deliver up, as a security for so doing, their frontiers. 13th. That the repetition of conquest should not diminish the thirst of glory among the troops, the greatest part of the plunder taken was divided among them; it therefore appeared as if the senate made war not to enrich themselves, but for the benefit of those who voluntarily enlisted in their service. The Roman dominion was thereby extended with the greater certainty, and, as it were, insensibly; being hid under the exterior and seducing names of friendship, of protection, and of liberality. 14th. The nations submitted to the Roman arms with less reluctance, because there seemed nothing terrible in the yoke they imposed; they were left in the possession of their laws, manners, and language: thus they appeared liberal as friends; but the entire subjection of their tributaries, although progressive, was positively certain.

Thus war, and a strict adherence to political maxims, by degrees raised Rome to almost universal monarchy. Their success was viewed with as much astonishment by the nations which they subjugated, as we regard, with wonder, the exploits of their Scipios, their Syllas, and their Cæsars.

The Roman Empire.

We have seen Cæsar, the conqueror of Pompey, in the fields of Pharsalia, return triumphant to Rome, and assassinated by Brutus and Cassius in the senate. Antony, under the pretence of avenging his death, united himself with Lepidus and Octavius the nephew of Cæsar. Octavius, disdaining a division of the empire, found means to quarrel with them both, defeated them in succession, returned crowned with victory to Rome, and assumed the name of Augustus. From the time of Julius Cæsar, the republic took the name of empire; and those who were at the head of its government were denominated emperors. The first twelve assumed the name of Cæsar, that is to say, from Julius Cæsar to Domitian. Augustus, the first emperor, was a most fortunate warrior, and a profound politician. His liberality to the people, his fidelity to his friends, and his love of the arts and sciences, obliterated from the minds of the people the proscriptions which had taken place during the wars which had distracted the empire at the commencement of his career. During his reign, Biscay, Dalmatia, Egypt, Pannonia, Aquintaine, Illyricum, Rhætia, the country of the Vindelicians, and all the maritime towns in Pontus, became subject to the Roman state. He defeated the Germans, the Parthians, and the Dacians, and died with the reputation of a happy monarch. The reign of Augustus was remarkable for literary characters, among whom were Virgil, author of the Æneid; Horace, of Odes, Satires, and Epistles; and Ovid, of the Metamorphoses, and other poems. It has since become a proverbial expression to call any period, when the literature of a nation is particularly cultivated, its Augustan age. The reign of Augustus was also distinguished by the birth of Jesus Christ, which took place in the seven hundred and fifty-fourth year from the foundation of Rome, and in the thirtieth year of the reign of Augustus. Tiberius, who had married the daughter of Augustus, and by whom he had been adopted, abandoned himself to voluptuousness, and governed by his ministers. His cruelty and avarice rendered him an object of general detestation. Incapable of

distinguishing himself in the field, he left the conduct of his wars to his generals. Germanicus defeated the Germans, and Tiberius rewarded his services by ordering him to be poisoned. This monster of perfidy, ingratitude, and cruelty, died at Campania, in the seventy-eighth year of his age. In the eighteenth year of his reign, Jesus Christ was put to death at Jerusalem.

The *Prætorian Guards* were a body of 10,000 men, under the especial orders of the prætor of Rome, who was usually also one of the consuls, or subsequently the emperor. They were quartered by Augustus, in small detachments, in different parts of Italy; but Tiberius brought them all to Rome, and fixed them in its neighbourhood in a fortified camp. They soon found the unarmed and timid populace of Rome too feeble to oppose them, and took upon themselves the nomination or disposal of the emperors. Caius Cæsar, called also Caligula, was the son of Germanicus, grandson of Drusus, and great nephew of Tiberius; and succeeded to the imperial dignity in the twenty-fifth year of his age. His life was a continued scene of debauchery, worse, even, than that of his predecessor. He made war against the Suabian Germans, without displaying the least promise of military talents. He was killed in his palace, in the twenty-ninth year of his age. Claudius, uncle and successor to Caligula, gave by turns, symptoms of good sense and moderation, folly and cruelty. He made war upon Britain, which he reduced: at his return he had a triumph, and took the name of Britannicus. He died at the age of seventy-four. He was the husband of Messalina, so dishonoured by her licentious life.

Nero, the son of Domitian Ænobarbus and Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus, and sister to Caligula, began his reign by aspiring to virtues which he did not possess. This seeming goodness was, however, of short duration; he threw off the mask, and appeared to the people in his true character. He tarnished the reputation, and diminished the power of the Roman empire. He never undertook any military expedition; but suffered the Parthians to make themselves masters of Armenia, and obliged the Roman legions to pass under the yoke. He had Rome set on fire, and put his own mother, his preceptor, and several other persons to death in the most wanton and cruel manner. At length the senate declared him an enemy to his country; and he was condemned to be conducted, quite naked, with his head between the prongs of a pitchfork, through the streets of Rome; then to be whipped to death, and afterward to be thrown from a high rock into the Tiber. Nero saved himself from this sentence by self-murder, at the house of one of his freedmen in the country, at the age of thirty-two years, and the fourteenth of his reign. In his person the family of Augustus became extinct.

Sergius Galba, a senator, of an ancient and noble family, was, at the age of sixty-three, proclaimed emperor by the Spaniards and the Gauls; and his election was approved by the whole army. He possessed some virtue, but it was eclipsed by his cruelty and his avarice. He fell into the snare which he had laid for Otho, and was killed at Rome in the seventh month from his election. Otho succeeded as emperor. He united in his person the extremes of valour and effeminacy. Having been overcome in battle by Vitellius, his competitor, he stabbed himself, being in the thirty-eighth year of his age, and the ninety-fifth day of his reign. Vitellius mounted the imperial throne after the death of Otho. He reigned without honour, and was cruel in his government. He killed Sabinus, the brother of Vespasian, and burned him with the capitol. He was an extreme glutton, and was killed by an officer in the service of Vespasian, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, having reigned eight months and one day. His body, after having been dragged through Rome, was thrown into the Tiber.

Vespasian succeeded to the purple. He brought under the Roman yoke many powerful nations; he took Jerusalem, and entered it in

triumph with his son Titus. His death was much regretted by the senate and the people. He was good-tempered, moderate, humane, witty, capable of friendship, and, on the whole, the greatest emperor since Augustus. Titus succeeded his father; he was perfectly a master of his passions, and governed the empire so admirably as to gain the name of the "*Love and delight of the Human Race.*" His eloquence, his valour, and his moderation, where the charms by which he gained the hearts of his subjects. He died in the forty-first year of his age, having reigned two years, eight months and twenty days. Domitian, the younger brother of Titus, ascended the throne. He abandoned himself to every vice, and was capable of every crime. He raised many considerable edifices in Rome; and was killed in his palace, by his domestics, in the fifteenth year of his reign. Nerva, already advanced in age, was next elected emperor. He governed with justice, and chose Trajan for his successor. He died at Rome at the age of seventy, having reigned four months and eight days, regretted by a people whom he had rendered happy. Trajan, by birth a Spaniard, succeeded Nerva. He was a successful soldier, and extended the bounds of the Roman empire. He was just, and an enemy to flattery and envy; he was friendly, and loved his subjects; and it has been said that his only defects were a love of war and wine. He died in Asia in the sixty-third year of his age. Adrian was raised to the throne by the means of Plotina, the wife of Trajan. He had a happy disposition; was a protector of the arts, and of artists; and his greatest ambition was to have the reputation of being learned. He was a perfect master of the Greek language, and jealous of those who spoke or wrote better than himself. He abandoned many provinces conquered by Trajan, and built a temple in honour of Venus on mount Calvary. He died in the Campania of Rome at the age of sixty-two years. Antoninus Pius, of Nismes, succeeded Adrian. He treated his subjects as his children. Liberality, clemency, and affability, formed only a part of the good qualities of this prince; his wit was polished, his sentiments noble. He defeated the Britons by his generals. He repulsed the Moors, and took part of Egypt. His death took place at a country seat called Lorium, four leagues from Rome, in the sixty-third year of his age.

Marcus Aurelius, the successor of Antoninus, took Lucius Verus as his colleague in the empire; they made war upon the Parthians. Lucius Verus intended to command in person, but stopped at Antioch, and gave his orders to his lieutenants, who defeated the Parthians, and took Seleucia, one of the finest cities in Syria. Lucius Verus returned to Rome, and had a triumph. He did at Venice, of apoplexy, or poison, having reigned nine years. After the death of Verus, Marcus Aurelius governed alone, with all the wisdom which characterizes a good prince. He overcame several northern nations, and sold the most precious part of his property to compensate his soldiers, rather than oppress the people. This crowned philosopher would serve as a perfect model for princes, if his extreme kindness had not sometimes degenerated into weakness. He died at the age of sixty-one. Commodus, son of Aurelius, but unworthy of such a parent, succeeded his father to the throne. He made himself detestable by his debaucheries; but carried on a successful war against the Germans. After having practised the cruelties of a Nero, and the wickedness of a Caligula, by sacrificing the wisest among the Romans, and murdering his wife and his sister, he died, as is supposed, by poison.

Pertinax, prefect of Rome, succeeded Commodus, at the age of seventy. He was originally a schoolmaster in Liguria, which he quitted for a military life. In endeavouring to establish dicipline in the army, he was killed by the soldiers of his own guard, after a reign of twenty-four days.

Julian usurped the empire after the death of Pertinax; but he was defeated by his rival, Septimus Severus, and was slain in his palace in the

seventh month of his reign. Severus, who had already assumed the title of emperor in Illyria, succeeded Julian. He defeated and killed Pescennius Niger, who had been proclaimed emperor in the east. He also defeated Clodius Albin, who had assumed the title of Cæsar in Gaul. He subjugated the Parthians and the Arabs, and joined to his military skill the reputation of learning. In England he built the famous wall in the north, which extended from sea to sea—and which is in part remaining at this hour—in order to prevent the inroads of the Picts and Scots. He died at York, after having reigned gloriously eighteen years and four months.

Caracalla and Geta, the sons of Severus, were elected emperors. Caracalla having killed Geta, whom the senate had declared an enemy to the republic, reigned alone. He governed tyrannically, and abandoned himself to the most infamous and degrading vices. He carried on a war with some success against the Germans; and was preparing to march against the Parthians, when he was killed at Edessa, at the age of forty-three years; after having reigned six years and two months, the detestation of the Roman people. Here we date the decline of the Roman empire. Macrinus and Diadamenis, father and son, were placed on the imperial throne. They were killed by the soldiers, after having reigned fourteen months. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, surnamed Heliogabalus, priest of the Temple of the Sun, was proclaimed emperor by the army. He was a monster of lasciviousness; and was, with his mother Semiasyra, killed by the soldiers, after having reigned two years and eight months. Alexander Severus, cousin to the last emperor, mounted the throne at the age of fifteen years. The army gave him the name of Cæsar, and the senate of Augustus. He gained a signal victory over the Persians; and was noted as a patron of the arts and sciences. He was killed in Gaul, by a soldier whom he had raised from the ranks, after a reign of thirteen years; during which he consoled the empire, by his virtues and his kindness, for the tyranny of the preceding reigns. Maximinian, of the Gothic race, elected emperor by the soldiers, was the son of a poor peasant, and, from the station of a common soldier, arose step by step to the first dignities in the empire. He was eight feet high, and a most voracious glutton. He commenced his reign by the murder of his best friends, and was himself murdered by his soldiers. Gordian was placed upon the imperial throne by the soldiers. He appointed his son as his colleague, whom he sent into Africa against Capellian, governor of Numidia and Mauritania. The younger Gordian was vanquished and killed by the Numidians, at the age of forty-five years. Gordian the elder died with despair, at the age of eighty, in the third year of his reign.

Maximus and Balbinus, the first the son of a smith, and the latter of noble origin, had been during the life-time of Maximinian elected emperors by the senate, and now assumed the throne. But the soldiers, dissatisfied with their election, entered their palaces and massacred them. They then set up the grandson of Gordian, whom the senate had also declared Cæsar after the death of his grandfather. Gordian II., invested with the purple, opened the temple of Janus, and carried on a successful war against the Parthians and Persians. He pursued Sapor to the confines of Persia, where he was killed through the treachery of Philip, whom he had constituted his lieutenant. The Romans, for his virtues, ranked him among the gods. The two Philips, father and son, were proclaimed emperors. The father was the son of an Arab chief of robbers. Before he came into Italy, he had made his peace with Sapor. He abandoned some of the provinces of the empire; visited Arabia; and built, at the place of his birth, a city which he called Philipopolis. During the reign of the Philips, was celebrated at Rome, with great magnificence, the year one thousand from the foundation of the city. Philip, the father, was killed

at Verona, and the son at Rome, after having reigned about six years.

Decius and his son, who had been sent against the Scythians, being successful, received from the soldiers the imperial crown. Decius possessed the qualities of a good soldier and an honest man. He, however, persecuted the Christians with rigour, on account of what he considered their fanaticism. After having reigned two years, he, together with his son, perished by an ambuscade prepared for them by Trebonianus Gallus.

Hostilius and Gallus succeeded Decius in the empire. Hostilius had been named by Decius as his successor; but he died soon after his elevation, with the plague, at Rome. Gallus, who was saluted emperor by the legions, divided his power with his son Volusius. Lucinius, brother of Hostilius, prepared to fight him, but was abandoned, and killed by his soldiers in Illyria. Gallus and Volusius marched against Emilius, who had revolted in Mœsia, and were killed at Terano, after having reigned about two years.

Emilius, an African, was proclaimed emperor by the legions which had revolted against Gallus; but the soldiers having learned that Valerian had taken the purple in Gaul, they killed Emilius, after having reigned three months. Valerian, and Gallien, his son, governed the empire jointly. They were unfortunate in their wars, particularly in that carried on against Sapor, king of Persia, who defeated Valerian in Mesopotamia, took him prisoner, and treated him with every indignity. Gallien defeated and killed Ingenuus, who had taken the purple. The weakness of the Roman government had encouraged the Germans, who made irruptions into Gaul and Italy. At the same time the governors of the provinces aimed at becoming independent; and at one time not less than thirty had declared themselves emperors. Posthumus usurped the empire in Gaul, which he governed ten years by his valour and prudence. He laid siege to Mayence, which had revolted at the solicitation of Lollius, elected emperor by the troops he commanded. Posthumus and Lollius were killed by their own soldiers. Marius, originally a blacksmith, elected emperor after the death of Posthumus, was killed on the second day of his reign, by a soldier who had been his boy at the forge. He ran his sword through his body; telling him, at the same time, *that it was of his own forging.*

Victorinus succeeded Marius, and was killed at Cologne, by a writer, whose wife he had seduced. Tetricus succeeded Victorinus, and took the purple at Bourdeaux. Gallus succeeded, and was killed with Valerian, his brother, at Milan, in the ninth year of his reign. Claudius II. succeeded Gallus. He totally defeated the Goths, who had committed great ravages in Greece. His modesty, moderation, equity, and other good qualities, gained him general esteem. He died of a contagious fever, in the second year of his reign. Quintillus, the brother of Claudius, was saluted emperor by the soldiers, but killed on the seventeenth day of his reign. Aurelian succeeded Quintillus, and was esteemed for his valour and his prudence. He defeated, near Chalons, in Champagne, the army of Tetricus. He fought a bloody battle with Zenobia, a celebrated princess. This astonishing woman, after the death of her husband, Odenatus, who, under the emperor Gallus, was proclaimed emperor of the East, commanded the army in person with much success. Aurelian took her prisoner, and entered Rome in triumph, making Zenobia walk before his chariot. She possessed extraordinary beauty, and a great mind. Aurelian was assassinated by the means of his secretary, in the road between Constantinople and Heracleum.

The army having refused at this time to bestow the imperial throne, the senate resumed its ancient right. The choice fell on an old man, named Tacitus. He died in the sixth month of his reign. He was just and enlightened, perfectly disinterested, and a man well suited to close the wounds of the state. Florian succeeded Tacitus, his brother; but reigned

only two months and twenty days. The prince demanded the empire as the right of his family. Probus, saluted emperor after Florian, was of obscure birth; but he possessed heroic valour; he drove from Gaul the many barbarians who had nearly overrun it. He defeated Saturninus in the east, and Proculus and Bonosus near Cologne, usurpers of the empire. Probus was killed by his own soldiers, after having reigned with glory about six years. Aurelius Carus succeeded Probus; and soon after he had been named Augustus, he created his sons, Carinus and Numerian, Cæsars, with whom he reigned about two years. He defeated the Salmatians, and afterwards the Persians, and was killed by lightning on the banks of the Tigris. Numerian, who was with his father in the east, was assassinated in his litter. Carinus, whom his father had left in the west, to govern Illyria, Gaul, and Italy, had, by his crimes, become the scourge of the human race. The victorious army of Persia refused to acknowledge him, and saluted Diocletian as emperor.

Diocletian was no sooner elected emperor than he marched against Carinus, and defeated him in a general battle in Mœsia. He bestowed the name of Cæsar on Maximin, surnamed Hercules, and sent him into Gaul, to quell an insurrection of the peasants, which duty he soon effectively performed. Carausius, general of part of the troops of the empire, and whom Maximin had ordered to be killed, took the purple, and possessed himself of Britain. Achilleus took possession of Egypt; and Narses used every effort to render himself master of the east. Diocletian now took for his colleague in office, Maximin Hercules, and named him Augustus; and gave the title of Cæsar to Constance and Galerus. The two emperors accommodated matters with Carausius. They defeated the Persians under Narses, and on their return to Rome, received the honour of a superb triumph. But they presently grew weary of their grandeur, and both emperors relinquishing the purple on the same day, appeared in the habit of common citizens; Diocletian at Nicomede, and Maximin at Milan. The former retired to Salona, in Dalmatia; the latter to Lucania. Diocletian was a philosopher, possessing a commanding genius. Maximin was fierce and cruel, possessing more of the courage of the soldier, than the genuis of a general. Constantius Clorus and Galerus were declared emperors by the senate. These two princes divided the empire between them. Constantius had Gaul, Italy, and Africa; Galerus, Illyria, Asia, and the east. Constantius died after a reign of about two years, with the character of a just prince.

Constantine the Great, son of Constantius, was elected emperor at York. But the soldiers of the prætorian guard, who had revolted at Rome, gave the title of Augustus to Maxentius, son of Maximin Hercules. Maximin, who now felt regret at having resigned the purple, left Lucania, and came to Rome, from whence he wrote in vain to Diocletian to re-assume the imperial throne. Galerus sent Severus to Rome, to oppose Maxentius. Severus besieged Rome, but was betrayed, and defeated; and soon after Maxentius caused him to be strangled between Rome and Capua. Maximin having in vain endeavoured to dispossess his son, Maxentius, retired into Gaul, in search of Constantine, his son-in-law, with a design to kill him. Fausta, daughter of Maximin, and wife of Constantine, being acquainted with the design of her father, informed her husband. Maximin, in order to save himself from the fury of Constantine, endeavoured to embark at Marseilles for Italy, but was killed in that city by the order of Constantine. Galerus honoured Licinius with the purple, and died soon after. The Romans at this time obeyed three emperors; Constantine, Maxentius, and Licinius. Constantine possessed talents both for war and politics; he defeated the army of Maxentius, and afterwards attacked Licinius, who had married his sister, and having defeated him in several actions both by sea and land, the vanquished Licinius surrendered at dis-

cretion to the conqueror. Licinius retired to Thessalonia, where he lived in privacy and tranquility, until Constantine, hearing that he was alive, ordered him to be put to death. Constantine, now sole master of the empire, transferred the seat of government to Byzantium, which he named Constantinople. Under him Christianity began to flourish; he received baptism; but, although he was a nominal Christian, many of his qualities were repugnant to the principles of Christianity. He died near Nicomede.

Constantine II., Constance, and Constantius, divided the empire between them, agreeable to the will of Constantine their father. Constantine had Spain, Gaul, and the Alps; Constance, Asia, Egypt, and the East; Constantius, Italy, Sicily, and Africa. This division was the ruin of the empire. Constantine was killed by the soldiers of his brother Constantius, who perished by treason a little time after. Constance, sole master of the empire, reigned twenty-four years. Destitute of glory, weak, and inconsistent, he was neither loved nor feared.

Julian, called by the Christians the Apostate, by others the Philosopher, was proclaimed emperor by the troops in the lifetime of Constance. This prince was just, frugal, an enemy to vain-glory and flattery, and affected to hate the name of Christian. He died a hero fighting against the Persians. Jovian, elected by the principal officers of the army, governed with wisdom, and encouraged Christianity. He reigned about eight months. Valentinian succeeded Jovian; he joined in the government his brother Valens. They divided the empire of the East and the empire of the West. Valentinian had the West, and Valens the East. Gratian ascended the imperial throne after the death of his father Valentinian. Valens, defeated by the Goths and other barbarians who were established in Thrace and menaced Constantinople, died leaving few subjects to regret his loss. Gratian appointed Theodosius governor of the East, where, by his zeal for the Christian religion, his abhorrence of its opponents, and by his courage, he rendered himself popular. Gratian being dead, and Valentinian, emperor of the West, being assassinated in the year 393, and Theodosius having vanquished Maximus and Eugenius, who had declared themselves emperors, re-united the whole empire, which he divided between his sons. After the death of Theodosius, all degenerated; and from this epoch may be dated the fall of the Romans. The decline of the Roman empire, in fact, followed the age of the Antonines. The effeminate and luxurious manners of the nobles and people of Rome; the vices of the emperors; the means by which they rose to power; the disposal of sovereignty by the military; the recruiting of the army by natives of Germany and other barbarous countries; and the increasing numbers and audacity of the "barbarians," precipitated Rome from that eminence which she had attained during the consulate and the first years of the empire.

In order to connect the present with the past, and thereby render our sketch of Roman history the more complete, we shall now make some abridged extracts from the observations of a modern tourist, M. Galiffe, of Geneva, in his work entitled "Italy and its inhabitants;" and conclude with a slight historical notice of Papal Rome, or States of the Church.

"If we were to judge of the state of society in Rome under the kingly power, from the tales which so many writers have dignified with the title of Roman history, we should find it very difficult indeed to account for the astonishing magnificence of its earliest monuments. The *Cloaca Maxima*, built by the elder Tarquin, is, I believe, the most stupendous work known in Europe—a work which even Egyptian kings might have admired. The *Curia Hostilia* offers remains of similar architecture; walls and vaults, built with stones of such enormous size, and so closely joined, that they are likely enough to endure to the end of the world. From these remains alone it would be easy to show how ridiculous is the sup-

position that the common people were of any consideration in the state under the kings of Rome; they were slaves, and *could* be nothing else. It is clear that they had no votes to give, that they were never consulted, that the public resolutions were not even communicated to them, except in so far as it was necessary that they should know what duties were prescribed for their performance; in short, that they were very nearly on the same footing as the Russian peasants in our days—perhaps rather worse than better. On the other hand, I have no doubt that the aristocracy had a much higher degree of power and dignity than they are generally represented and supposed to have possessed. All those lords who were called *patricians*, were very nearly on a level with their chief, whom they called *king*. Their more immediate armed followers, very probably formed that part of the nation called *populus* in the general assemblies. The *plebs* were considered as far below the *populus*, which its name indeed implies—a name more expressive than polite; but politeness to that portion of the inhabitants of Rome was then quite out of the question.

"It was not till very long after the expulsion of the kings, that the plebeians began to feel that they were human beings, and that the distance at which they were kept by their lords began to wound their feelings. And it is probable, that they would never have dared to make the least attempt to raise themselves above the condition of their masters' cattle, if their services in war had not, by slow degrees, opened their eyes to their disgraceful situation. In time of peace they had either no leisure to make, or no means to circulate, observations of this nature; but in camps, where the clients of different patrons were necessarily often lodged together, and were led to compare their respective leaders, to talk of their deeds, and discuss their private as well as public conduct, they could not fail, sooner or later, to make serious reflections on the extreme difference which existed between themselves and their masters; a difference not to be sufficiently accounted for by any disparity of natural means; notwithstanding that the habit of command on the one side, and that of blind obedience and low obsequiousness on the other, might have established a perceptible, and even a striking diversity of features as well as of temper between them. That diversity, besides, must have gradually diminished, as every succeeding war augmented the consequence, and at the same time enlarged the feelings and the understandings, of the lower classes.

"When the plebeians had achieved a complete equality of rights with the patricians, the progress of the Roman republic towards universal dominion became, from the mere nature of things, excessively rapid. Though we may not be able to ascertain that the first plebeian who was made consul did anything in particular to prove himself deserving of that distinction, we may be pretty sure that none were raised to the dignity but men capable of illustrating their name by their deeds—at least in the earlier times; afterwards, indeed, it was grown into a custom, and the election of a plebeian consul had ceased to be a party-stroke. On the other hand, the patricians were deeply interested in rivalling and excelling their plebeian colleagues; so that this double motive of action gave prodigious strength to the government, and such an impetus to the whole nation, that none of the radical defects of its constitution could impede its progress through a long series of conquests. But those defects stuck closely to it, though concealed by the very triumphs which seemed to disprove their existence; and they penetrated into its core, and gnawed its vital parts, while its outward appearance inspired terror even in the nations among whom it had not yet carried destruction.

"The religion of the first Romans seems to have been more simple and more serious that that of other heathen nations. They were strangers to that immense multitude of gods, which the over-luxuriant imagination of the Greeks and Asiatics had created. Their gods were

few in number; and as they were believed to be virtuous and severe, they were accordingly respected and feared. Religious fear too frequently produces superstition; the Romans were extremely superstitious. But if the excess of their credulity made them attach a high degree of importance to ceremonies, which certainly were infinitely more absurd than even the most extravagant practices of the most superstitious sects of Christians, the perfect sincerity of belief which animated every class, gave them a moral strength which has never been sufficiently appreciated. Let it be remembered, that in those early times their priests were not a stipendiary class; they were the chiefs who led the people to war, and who maintained them in peace; without whose permission and interference nothing material could be done, and who introduced some particular religious rites into every action of life. This mixture of civil and ecclesiastical power in the chief of every noble family, over his children and clients, formed such a bond of union between them, that no external influence could have broken it; and even long after the plebeians had acquired a rank in society, and a considerable degree of influence in the state, they hardly dared to think that those religious rites could be performed by any but an hereditary patrician. As soon as they began to discover that they could perform them with equal efficacy themselves, their deep respect for religion received a wound from which it never recovered. All the divinities of the conquered countries, however immoral and impure, were freely admitted and adopted; and they completely changed the nature as well as the form of public and private worship. The great men began to be as free in their speeches on the subject, as the same class in France affected to be during the last two reigns of the Bourbons. Indifference and incredulity glided down from the higher to the lower classes; and that Rome which conquered Carthage, had long ceased to to exist, when Cæsar made himself master of its corpse. The winding-sheet was indeed more brilliant than any imperial robe, and seemed an object well worthy of his ambition.

"The luxury of the Romans was gradually carried to so extravagant a pitch, that the wise and the thinking even of their own nation were shocked at, and condemned it; but idle declamations can do no good in such cases. Many of those who were accounted the most virtuous and best citizens, were infected with this disorder, and delighted in it hardly less than the worst. But it does not appear that it was a part of their luxury to employ their riches in raising splendid edifices, for the astonishment of posterity. Posterity was nothing to them; present enjoyment was their only care. They levelled mountains, they digged or filled up lakes, they sent to the extremities of the earth for every delicacy of the table for which each country was renowned; they filled a great number of elegant villas with the most costly furniture, they kept an immense number of servants and slaves, and thus they squandered thousands of millions, of which hardly any trace remains except the names of the places from whence they dated elegant, *philosophical* epistles to their friends! The whole space beyond the Capitol is full of ruins; and those ruins are the more interesting, as the names of but very few of them are known. The form as well as the height of the hills, has been changed by the immense heaps of ruins which were thrown down in the lower parts of the town, and which in many places rose up to the level of those buildings which towered above them before. Houses have been built in places where none existed in ancient times; just because those places happened to be less encumbered with ruins, and because the ground was more solid. Trees have been planted on the top of the rubbish which filled up some streets, more particularly the *Forum Romanum*. But Rome, *as it is*, offers abundance to occupy the leisure hours of a man of taste for years. The Colosseum alone, so vast, so grand (notwithstanding defects

in its architecture) is so uncommonly picturesque in many points of view, that it well deserves to be visited. Nor is it necessary to admire the Romans of former times, and to hate their present governors, in order to take a lively interest in this magnificent fragment of antiquity. There are twelve obelisks in Rome; and five grand pillars, the two finest of which are those called the columns of Trajan and Antonine. The first gives its name to a square, the middle of which has been excavated as low down as the level of the ancient place, which is, if I remember well, about eight or ten feet lower than that of the buildings around. The other stands in the middle of the Piazzo Colonna; there is a staircase within it, as in the London monument. The general appearance of these columns is very agreeable as well as grand, and they are noble decorations to a square. The Capitol is so very different from what it was in ancient times, that it affords but little satisfaction at first sight; it is, however, far from being so insignificant as some would have it to be, and it grows more interesting on a nearer examination. What people call the Capitol at present, was only the *Intermontium* of ancient Rome, a sort of midway hill, which joined the Tarpeian rock to the real Capitoline Mount. The latter is extremely high, as one may easily perceive from the church of Ara Cœli on its top. The Tarpeian rock is lower, but yet quite lofty enough for its known destination. It must be observed that the Romans were far from possessing any well-founded pretensions to elegance; they imitated the Greeks as closely as they could, without ever attaining to their pitch of excellence. They thought there could never be too much of a good or a fine thing; and they crowded temples, houses, statues, obelisks, and every sort of ornament, in a manner that must have seemed absurd to a person of taste. The Roman arms conquered the territory of Greece, but the Grecian accomplishments subdued the Romans themselves; and the latter victory was more glorious than the former, which was only the inevitable consequence of a disproportion of mere physical force between the combatants."

PAPAL ROME, OR STATES OF THE CHURCH.

The name of Pope, or Father, was formerly given to all bishops. But since the time of Gregory VII. it has been solely applied to the bishop of Rome. The temporal grandeur of the Roman pontiff commenced in times very remote. Constantine gave to the church of Lateran upwards of one thousand marks in gold, and about thirty thousand marks in silver, besides the assignment of rents. The Popes, charged with sending missionaries to the east and west, and with providing for the poor, obtained for these pious purposes, from the richer Christians, without much trouble, considerable sums. The emperors, and the kings of the Lombards, gave to the Holy Father lands in various parts; and many others, by gift, and by will, increased his patrimony. In the seventh century we find the pontiff possessed of great riches in various countries, and exempted from tax or tribute. The Popes formed the design to render themselves independent. Under the reign of Pepin, father of Charlemagne, this revolution commenced; and it was completed under that of his son. Adrian I. caused money to be coined with his name; and the custom of kissing the feet of the Pope began about the close of the eighth century, when they assumed regal rights, and their power and riches increased rapidly. Gregory IV. rebuilt the port of Ostia; and Leo IV. fortified Rome at his own expense.

The election of Pope has been different in the different ages of the church. The people, and the clergy, were the first electors; and the emperor had the power of confirming the election, after the death of Pope Simplicius, in 483. Odoacer, king of the Heruli, and of Italy, made a

law which struck at the right of election, under pretence of remedying the divisions which sometimes took place on the election of a pope. This law was abolished about twenty years after, in the fourteenth council of Rome, held in 502, under Pope Simmacus, with the consent of the king Theodoric. But this prince, who was an Arian, becoming cruel towards the latter end of his life, caused Pope John to be laid in prison, where he died miserably, in 526. He then usurped to himself the right of creating a pope, and named to the pontifical chair Felix IV.

The Gothic kings who succeeded him followed his example; yet not entirely, for they contented themselves with confirming the election which the clergy had made. Justinian, who destroyed the empire of the Goths in Italy, and after him the other emperors, preserved this right; and they obliged the new-elected pope to pay a sum of money for the confirmation of his election. Constantine Pogonat delivered the church from this servitude and exaction in 681. Notwithstanding this apparent relinquishment on the part of the emperors, they always preserved some authority in the election of popes, until the time of Louis le Debonnaire, in 824, and his successors, Lothaire I. and Louis II., who ordained that the election of popes should henceforward be free, and canonical, according to ancient usage. Parties in favour of the different candidates for the popedom had now arisen to a great height, and were the cause of the schisms which followed in the church. The emperors were obliged to take on themselves the right of election; but after the schism of Peter and Victor IV. had been extinguished, all the cardinals re-united under the obedience of Innocent II. After his death, the cardinals were the only electors of Celestine II. in 1143; since which time they have been in full possession of this privilege. Honorius III. in 1216, or, according to others, Gregory X. in 1247, ordained, that the election should be made in the conclave. The conclave is a part of the palace of the Vatican, composed of many cells, where the cardinals are shut up for election, which takes place on the morning of the tenth day after the death of the pope.

The pope may be considered under four different titles: first, as chief of the church; second, as patriarch; third, as bishop of Rome; and fourth, as a temporal prince. As primate, he is the superior of all the catholic churches.. As patriarch, his rights extend over the kingdoms and provinces within the pale of the Romish church. As bishop of Rome, he exercises in the diocese of Rome the ordinary functions which he has not a right to exercise in other dioceses. As a temporal prince, he is sovereign of Rome, and the states which have been acquired by donation, or by proscription. No throne upon earth has been filled with men of more exalted genius, higher ambition, or more depraved vice, than the pontifical chair; but they are in general old men, well versed in the knowledge of men and the world. Their council is composed of men resembling themselves; and their orders, for a length of time, embraced almost the universe. Cardinal Braschi (Pius VI.) was elected in the early part of the year 1775, on the death of the celebrated (Ganginelli) Clement XVI. He occupied the pontifical chair until the breaking out of the French revolution in 1789; or rather till after the execution of Louis XVI., when he was induced to take a part in the war carrying on against France, by the emperor and other potentates. The French armies having overrun Italy, seized upon Rome, and made the venerable pontiff prisoner in 1798; from whence he was conveyed into France, where he died at Valence, in August, 1799, at a very advanced age. In 1800 a successor to the popedom was elected at Venice, who took the name of Pius VII. At his death Leo XII. was elected; who in 1829 was succeeded by Pius VIII..

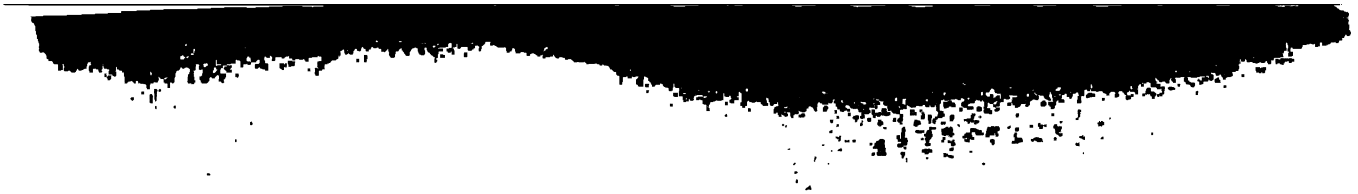
The government is wholly ecclesiastical, no one being eligible to fill any civil office who has not attained the rank of abbot. The pope enacts

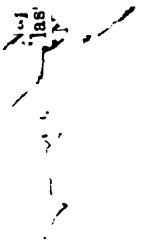
all laws, and nominates to all clerical appointments. He is assisted, however, by the high college of cardinals, comprising about seventy members; and the different branches of the government are conducted each by congregations, with a cardinal at its head. The laws in force are merely those of the Justinian code; but the pope has power to alter or annul any previous laws. Brigandage is less frequent than formerly; but the police and the law are still very defective; assassinations and other crimes of violence daily taking place without the perpetrators being ever brought to justice. On the fall of Napoleon, the alienation of church domains was confirmed; but the compensation since made to their former owners, and the restoration of suppressed churches and convents, have cost the government prodigious sums, and are the principal causes of the wretched state of the finances. Within the limits of the Papal States there are no fewer than eight archbishops', and fifty-nine bishops' sees; and it is estimated that in Rome there is a clergyman for every ten families. It is needless to add that this superabundance of priests, instead of promoting religion and morality, is, in fact, a principal cause of their low state in the city. The outward deportment of the papal court is, however, at present highly decorous. Those times so disastrous and disgraceful, when the popes had so many nephews, and those nephews built many splendid palaces and villas, called by the Romans, in derision, miracles of St. Peter, are now almost as much forgotten in Rome, as the time when horses were made consuls, and eunuchs emperors.

NAPLES.

Of the remote antiquity of this country there are but scanty documents. At a very early period most part of the coasts of Naples and Sicily were occupied by Greek colonists, the founders of some of the greatest and most flourishing cities in the ancient world. They received, from this circumstance, the name of Magna Græcia. But, rapidly as the Greek republics of Italy rose to notice, it is certain that luxury and corruption kept equal pace with their prosperity; and in the time of Polybius, the very name of Magna Græcia was disused. Continental Naples submitted to the Romans at an early period of the republic, subsequent to which it underwent many vicissitudes. In the fifth century it became a prey to the Goths. Belisarius, general of the emperor Justinian, took Naples in 537. Destined to pass from master to master, it was conquered by Totila in 543. The Lombards next got possession of it, and kept it until Charlemagne put an end to that kingdom. His successors divided it with the Greek emperors, and the latter soon after became its sole masters. In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Saracens possessed Naples, and after them, the Normans. Sicily also fell into the hands of the French in 1058.

The French formed Naples into a monarchy, of which Roger was its first king. Constance, last princess of the blood of Roger, and heiress of the two kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, was married, in 1186, to Henry, son of the emperor Barbarossa. This marriage was the source of great misfortunes. At length this family became extinct in 1265, when Pope Clement IV. gave the investiture of Naples and Sicily to Charles, count of





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Anjou. Charles was opposed by Conradin, nephew of Manfroid, who came from Germany to dispute with him the crown. Charles defeated him in battle, and having taken him prisoner, with Frederic of Austria, caused them both to be executed in the market-place of Naples in 1268. This execution made the king detested by his new subjects: and the French in Naples were equally obnoxious as in Sicily. A Frenchman had committed in Sicily an atrocious act of violence on a woman. On the morrow after Easter, 1282, the people assembled together, and murdered every Frenchman on the island, with the exception of one gentleman, a native of Provence. The innocent perished with the guilty, and the blood of Conradin was terribly avenged.

The descendants of Charles of Anjou possessed the crown until 1384, when Jane I. adopted, by her will, Louis I., duke of Anjou, son of King John. At the same time, Charles Duras, or Durazzo, a cousin of Queen Jane, established himself upon the throne. This event occasioned a long war between the two princes, and even between their successors. The posterity of Charles Durazzo, however, maintained their situation, while that of the count of Anjou also bore the title of king of Naples. Jane II., last sovereign of Naples, of the house of Durazzo, appointed, by her will, Rene of Anjou as her successor, which gave the Anjouan family a double right to the kingdom; but Rene never possessed it. Alphonso, king of Arragon, took possession of Naples and the crown.

The kings of Arragon possessed Naples until the time of Charles VIII., when Louis XII. conquered the kingdom. The great general, Gonsalvo, of Cordova, drove out the French army. Notwithstanding the treaty made between Louis XII. and Ferdinand, king of Spain, in favour of the former, the successors of Ferdinand enjoyed it until the death of Charles II., but not without frequent revolts on the part of the Neapolitans. The revolt of 1647 was headed by a man of the name of Massaniello, a fisherman, who, during fifteen days, could reckon upward of 100,000 men, over whom he held a most absolute sway. Henry, duke of Guise, a knight-errant of his day, taking advantage of the troubles which rent Naples asunder, procured himself to be declared king, when, after he had been some months in Naples, he was made prisoner by the Spaniards; and his partizans not only disavowed him, but submitted to his conquerors.

After the death of Charles II., who had left Philip V. as the inheritor of his kingdom, the Neapolitans acknowledged him as their king. Ferdinand IV., the late king of Naples, joined the grand confederacy against France at an early period of the war. He afterward made his peace, but again joining in the war, the French made themselves masters of Naples in January, 1799, and the royal family were compelled to fly from that portion of the Neapolitan dominions, and take refuge in Sicily. In February it was divided into eleven departments, and the government new-modelled on the French plan; but Admiral Nelson appearing upon the coast, the French capitulated, the democratic system was overturned, the old monarchy and government restored, and the king returned to his throne. The kingdom of Naples was again, however, placed under French dominion by Bonaparte, and its crown conferred on his brother Joseph: the legitimate king having again fled to Sicily, where he was long supported by a British force under Sir John Stewart. In the spring of 1808 Bonaparte removed Joseph to Spain, and raised Murat to the tributary and usurped throne of Naples, where he remained, without having been able to annex Sicily to his usurpation, until he was in turn hurled from the throne in 1815. Early in May of that year, the capital was surrendered to a British squadron; and on the 17th of June, Ferdinand IV re-entered it, amid loud and apparently sincere plaudits of the multitude.

During the time of Murat's reign considerable changes took place, the good effects of which every impartial person was ready to allow. All

branches of the public administration were invigorated and improved; society, in the upper ranks, was reconstructed upon the Parisian scale; the French code superseded the cumbrous and vicious jurisprudence of ancient Naples; and the nation, notwithstanding its subordination to the imperial politics, and its participation in Napoleon's wars, appeared to be destined to take a higher rank than before in the scale of nations. In July, 1820, a revolt, headed by General Pepe, broke out among the troops, and the universal cry was for a constitution, though no person seemed to know exactly what constitution to adopt, or how to frame a new one. At length it was determined to imitate that of the Spanish cortes, and the parliament was expressly summoned to modify and correct it. An episode to this revolutionary movement was about the same time exhibited in Sicily. No sooner had the citizens of Palermo heard what had been transpired at Naples, and that a parliament had been convoked there, than they determined to have a parliament and constitution of their own. Of their taste for liberty, as well as their fitness for it, they gave an immediate specimen, by letting loose from prison nearly a thousand atrocious malefactors. They assailed the houses of the Neapolitan officers, and threw the soldiers into dungeons. It was necessary, therefore, to send a large force from Naples to put down the rebellion; but when that force approached Palermo, a dreadful scene of slaughter and cruelty ensued in that unhappy city. All who refused to join this militia of criminals were shamefully murdered, then cut into pieces, and their quivering limbs exposed on pikes and bayonets. In the meanwhile those who led the Neapolitan troops permitted Palermo to surrender on terms of capitulation.

While at Naples they were thus amusing themselves at constitution-mongering, and in Sicily every species of horrid barbarity was practised, the allied powers took into their deliberation the changes which popular force had worked in the political system of the country and the king of the Two Sicilies was invited to the congress. The result was, that the Austrians crossed the Po on the 28th of January, and marched to Naples. Rieti was immediately taken by the Austrians, and the Neapolitan army fell back upon Aquila. The Austrians appeared in sight; General Pepe was almost instantly deserted by his troops, and obliged to escape as well as he could. This dispersion was followed by that of the troops at Mignana, who fired on their officers, and then disbanded. The Austrians entered Naples on the morning of the 29th; and thus ended the Neapolitan revolution.

There is something so unique and striking in the Neapolitan character, that we are tempted to conclude this article with an extract from Mr. Forsyth's account of the inhabitants of the capital:—"Naples, in its interior, has no parallel on earth. The crowd of London is uniform and intelligible: it is a double line in quick motion; it is the crowd of business. The crowd of Naples consists in a general tide rolling up and down; and in the middle of this tide, a hundred eddies of men. Here you are swept on by the current; there you are wheeled round by the vortex. A diversity of trades dispute with you in the streets. You are stopped by a carpenter's bench, you are lost among shoemakers' tools, you dash among the pots of a maccaroni stall, and you escape behind a lazzaroni's night-basket. In this region of caricature, every bargain sounds like a battle; the popular exhibitions are full of the grotesque; some of their church processions would frighten a war-horse.

"The mole seems, on holidays, an epitome of the town, and exhibits most of its humours. Here stands a methodistical friar preaching to one row of lazzaroni; there, Punch, the representative of the nation, holds forth to a crowd. Yonder, another orator recounts the miracles performed by a sacred wax-work on which he rubs his *agnuses*, and sells them, thus impregnated with grace, for a grain a piece. Beyond him are quacks in

hussar uniforms, exalting their drugs and brandishing their sabres, as if not content with one mode of killing. The next *professore* is a dog of knowledge, great in his own little circle of admirers. Opposite to him stand two jocund old men, in the centre of an oval group, singing alternately to their crazy guitars. Further on is a motley audience, seated on planks, and listening to a tragi-comic *filosopho*, who reads, sings, and gesticulates old Gothic tales of Orlando and his Paladins. If Naples be 'a paradise inhabited by devils,' I am sure it is by merry devils. Even the lowest class enjoy every blessing that can make the animal happy—a delicious climate, high spirits, a facility of satisfying every appetite, a conscience which gives no pain, a convenient ignorance of their duty, and a church that ensures heaven to every ruffian who has faith. Here tatters are not misery, for the climate requires little covering; filth is not misery to those who are born to it; and a few fingerings of maccaroni can wind up the rattling machine for the day.

"They are, perhaps, the only people on earth who do not pretend to virtue. On their own stage they suffer the Neapolitan of the drama to be always a rogue. If detected in theft, a lazzaroni will ask you, with impudent surprise, how you could possibly expect a poor man to be an angel. Yet what are these wretches? Why, men, whose persons might stand as models to a sculptor; whose gestures strike you with the commanding energy of a savage; whose language, gaping and broad as it is, when kindled by passion, bursts into oriental metaphor; whose ideas, indeed, are cooped within a narrow circle, but a circle in which they are invincible. If you attack them there you are beaten. Their exertion of soul, their humour, their fancy, their quickness of argument, their address at flattery, their rapidity of utterance, their pantomime and grimace, none can resist but a lazzaroni himself."

SICILY.

Sicily, the largest, most fertile, and best peopled island in the Mediterranean sea, now forming part of the kingdom of Naples, or the Two Sicilies, was inhabited by a people originally from Hispania, and called Sicanians. The Sicules, inhabitants of Latium, penetrated afterward into this island, and drove the Sicanians from the south and west parts. Several colonies of Greeks next transported themselves into Sicily, and the ancient inhabitants were obliged to retire into the interior of the country. The Greeks built several handsome cities, which are remaining to this day; but the most considerable was Syracuse, founded by the Ætolians. Archius of Corinth, a bold and enterprising man, entered Sicily with a colony of Dorians, and made himself master of Syracuse, about 765 B. C. The fertility of the country, and the convenience of the port, induced him to enlarge the city considerably, and it soon became one of the first in Europe.

Agrigentum, the next city in Sicily after Syracuse, was equally exposed to revolution. Phalaris made himself master of it in the year 572 before Christ, and exercised there, during sixteen years, every species of cruelty. He was killed by Telemachus, the grandson of Theron, the liberator of his country, and afterward its monarch. The fugitives of Syracuse,

wishing once more to get possession of their city, in the year 491, implored succor from Gelon, king of Gela, a city of Sicily. Gelon conducted himself with so much prudence, that the Syracusians unanimously elected him to be their king. His first care was to reinstate agriculture; and he worked in the fields at the head of the labourers. He augmented Syracuse, fortified it, and became afterward so powerful as to be master of all Sicily. The Carthaginians made several attempts upon this island, but were always repulsed. Gelon died in the year 476 B. C., leaving behind him the character of a great prince, and regretted by all ranks of Sicilians. He was succeeded by his brother Hieron, a man naturally morose and severe, but softened by Simonides, Pinder, and Xenophon, whom he encouraged, and always kept at his court. He died 466 B. C., and left the throne to his brother, Thrasybulus, who possessed all the vices of Hieron, without his good qualities. He was driven out for his tyranny; and Sicily was a short time free.

Dionysius rendered himself master of Sicily in 405 B. C., and reigned thirty-seven years. He was succeeded by Dionysius the tyrant, who reigned twenty-five years: being driven out by Timoleon, he took refuge in Corinth, where he set up a school. Agathocles brought the Sicilians under his yoke 317 B. C., and reigned twenty-six years. From his death Sicily was a theatre of continual war between the Carthaginians and the Romans. Not the fortifications of Syracuse, nor the machines invented by Archimides for its defense, were sufficient to prevent Marcellus from becoming master of it in the year 208 B. C. Sicily flourished under the Romans; but in the decline, or rather toward the fall, of that empire, it came under the Vandals, and afterward the kings of Italy. The Saracens were continual in their attacks upon it; and in the year 823 after Christ, the emperors of the East ceded it to Louis le Debonnaire, emperor of the West; from which time the Saracens occupied a part of it (A. D. 837), until driven out by the Normans in 1004.

Soon after the expulsion of the Saracens, the feudal system was introduced; and in 1072, earl Roger, the Norman, also established a representative-assembly, or parliament, in which the nobles and clergy had an overwhelming majority, and which subsisted, notwithstanding the many changes the island has undergone, down to our own times. The Normans kept possession of the island till the establishment of the Suabian dynasty, in 1194. In 1265 Charles of Anjou became master of Sicily; but the massacre planned by John of Procida, known by the name of the "Sicilian Vespers," (March 29, 1282), put an end to the Augevines. It soon after became a dependency of Spain, and was governed by Spanish viceroys. At the death of Charles II., of Spain, his spoils became an object of furious contention; and at the peace of Utrecht, in 1711, it was ceded to Victor Amadeus, of Savoy, who not many years after was forced by the emperor Charles VI. to relinquish it for Sardinia. The Spaniards, however, not having been instrumental in effecting this disadvantageous exchange, made a sudden attempt to recover Sicily, in which they failed, through the vigilonce of the English admiral Byng, who destroyed their fleet, and compelled them for that time to abandon the enterprise. In 1734 the Spanish court resumed their design with success. The infant Don Carlos drove the Germans out, and was crowned king of the Two Sicilies at Palermo. When he passed into Spain, to take possession of that crown, he transferred the Sicilian diadem to his son Ferdinand III. of Sicily and IV. of Naples. While the continental dominions of Naples were held by Napoleon, Palermo was the residence of the court, the island being defended by an English fleet and garrison.

Since 1750, however, improvements of various kinds have been slowly, but gradually gaining ground; and, within the last few years, several important and substantial reforms have been introduced, that will, it is to be hoped, conspire to raise this fine island from the abyss into which it has been cast by bad laws and bad government.

GENOA.

A history of the various revolutions of Genoa would be a record of continual turbulence, but still interesting. Our limits, however, prevent us from attempting even a synopsis of them. In the time of the second Punic war, it was a considerable city under the dominion of Rome. Mago, a Carthaginian general, in the course of the war, attacked, took, and destroyed it. The senate thereupon sent the pro-consul Spurius, who in less than two years raised it to its former splendour. It remained under the Romans until it submitted to the Goths. The Lombards next possessed and almost ruined it. Charlemagne annexed it to the French empire. Pepin, his son, gave the city of Genoa, and its dependencies, to a French lord of the name of Adhesnar, under the title of count. His descendants reigned until the end of the eleventh century, when the Genoese revolted against their count, set themselves at liberty, and chose magistrates from among the nobles. In the next century, the city was taken by the Saracens, who put all the men to the sword, and sent the women and children as slaves into Africa.

When again re-established, the inhabitants availed themselves of their fine situation, turned their attention to commerce, enriched themselves, became powerful in proportion to their riches, and erected their country into a republic. Their enthusiasm for liberty rendered this republic capable of great things. In it were joined the opulence of commerce with the superiority of arms. The jealousy and ambition of the citizens at length caused great troubles; the emperors, the kings of Naples, the Viscontis, the Sforzas, and France, successively called in by the different parties, divided the republic. In 1217, the principal Genoese, fearful of once more becoming the victims of civil war, chose as their first magistrate a stranger. In 1339, the state appeared in a somewhat more regular form, and had acquired tranquility. Simon Bocanegra, a man of an illustrious family, was elected duke, or doge, with a council composed of the chiefs of the principal families. In 1396, the Genoese put themselves under the protection of Charles VI., king of France, whom they acknowledged as their sovereign. In 1409, they massacred the French, and gave their government to the marquis of Montferrat. In 1458, Francis Sforza, duke of Milan, was acknowledged sovereign protector of the republic of Genoa; but his administration tending to despotism, they set themselves at liberty. It was at this time that they offered the sovereignty of their city to Louis XI. Louis, well acquainted with the disposition of the Genoese, unfit either to command or obey, made this answer to their solicitations: "If the Genoese give themselves to me, I will give them all to the devil."

In 1528, Andrew Doria had the happiness and address to unite and conciliate this refractory people, and establish an aristocratic government. This form continued until the French republicans made their rapid conquests in Italy. Genoa was the scene of many hard-fought battles. At length, in 1797, a new republic was raised, under the name of the Ligurian republic; but which, like the rest of the modern French creations, was dissolved at the downfall of Napoleon, in 1815, and transformed to a dependent province of Sardinia.

THE HISTORY OF SARDINIA.

SARDINIA is an insular and continental kingdom in the south of Europe. The continental part occupies the north-west portion of Italy, and is bounded by Switzerland on the north, the duchies of Milan and Parma on the east, the Mediterranean on the south, and France on the west. It stretches about 200 miles from north to south, and 130 from east to west. It consists at present of Piedmont, with the county of Nice; the duchy of Montferrat; part of the duchy of Milan; the territory of the late republic of Genoa; Savoy (not properly included in Italy), and the island of Sardinia, with the adjacent isles.

THE ISLAND OF SARDINIA

is divided from Corsica by the Strait of Bonifacio. The Greeks called it Ichnusa Sandaliotis, and Sardo. While it was in the possession of the Romans, it was a place of banishment; and afterward the Saracens possessed it nearly four centuries. Their expulsion could not be effected by the Pisanese, on whom Pope Innocent III. had assumed the prerogative of bestowing it in 1132. The emperor Frederic paid so little regard to this grant, that he again reunited it with the empire; but the Pisanese taking advantage of the long interregnum, got possession of it in 1257. A difference afterward arising between them and the see of Rome, the pope again bestowed the island, in 1298, on James II. of Arragon, whose son, Alphonso IV. made himself master of it in 1324. From this time it continued under the crown of Spain, governed by a viceroy until 1708, when the English making a conquest of it for King Charles III., afterward emperor, by the title of Charles VI., it was confirmed to him by the treaty of Utrecht. In 1717, it was recovered by the Spaniards; and in 1718 the emperor exchanged it for Sicily with the duke of Savoy, who was put in actual possession of it in 1720, and took the title of king of Sardinia.

"The inhabitants of Sardinia," says Mr. Salt, "(I speak of the common people), are yet scarcely above the negative point of civilization; perhaps it would be more correct to say that they appear to have sunk a certain way back into barbarism. They wear, indeed, linen shirts, fasted at the collar by a pair of silver buttons, like hawks' bills; but their upper dress of shaggy goats' skins in the pure savage style. A few have gone one step nearer to perfectability, and actually do wear tanned leather coats, made somewhat in the fashion of the armour worn in Europe in the 15th century. With such durable habiliments, it is easy to conceive that they do not require much assistance from the manufactures of foreign countries." Another writer, whom we have frequently quoted in this work, says, "Notwithstanding her extent, the richness of her soil, her position in the centre of the Mediterranean, and her convenient harbours, Sardinia has been strangely neglected, not only by her own governments, but by the European powers generally; and has remained, down to our own times, in a semi-barbarous state. A long series of wars and revolutions followed by the establishment of the feudal system in its most vexatious and oppressive form; the fact of her having been for a lengthened period a dependency of Spain, and, if that were possible, worse governed even than the dominant country; the division of the island into immense estates, most of which were acquired by Spanish grandees; the want of leases, and the restrictions on industry, have paralysed the industry of the inhabitants, and sunk them to the lowest point in the scale of civilization

BAVARIA.

BAVARIA, now one of the principal secondary states of Germany, was derived from a circle of the German empire, of the same name, bounded by Franconia and Bohemia on the north, Austria on the east, Tyrol on the south, and Suabia on the west. The earliest inhabitants of Bavaria were a tribe of Celtic origin called the Boii, from whom it received its old Latin name of Boiaria; but, about the time of Augustus, the Romans subdued it, and it afterwards formed a part of what they termed Rhætia, Vindelicia and Noricum. After the downfall of the Roman empire, Bavaria fell under the dominion of the Ostrogoths and Franks, by whom it was governed till Charlemagne took possession of the country, and committed the government to some of his counts; and on the partition of his imperial dominions among his grandsons, Bavaria was assigned to Louis the German. Its rulers bore the title of margrave till 920, when Arnold, its reigning prince, was raised to the title of duke, which his successors continued to bear till 1623, when Maximilian I., having assisted Ferdinand II. against his Bohemian insurgents, was elevated to the electoral dignity.

In 1070, Bavaria passed into the possession of the Guelphs; and in 1180 it was transferred by imperial grant to Otho, count of Wittelsbach, whose descendants branched out into two families, the Palatine and the Bavarian, the former inheriting the Palatine of the Rhine, the latter the duchy of Bavaria. Few events of any importance occurred till the war of the Spanish succession, when Bavaria suffered severely from following the fortunes of France. It, however, received a great accession in 1777, when, upon the extinction of the younger line of Wittelsbach, the palatinate, after a short contest with Austria, was added to the Bavarian territory. After the adjustment of the Austrian pretensions, the electorate enjoyed the blessings of peace till the French revolution, which involved all Germany in the flames of civil discord. The elector remained on the side of the Imperialists till 1796, when the French marched a powerful army into his dominions, and concluded a treaty for the cessation of hostilities. In the following year was signed the treaty of Campo-Formio, and in 1801 that of Luneville, by which all the German dominions left of the Rhine were annexed to France, and the elector lost the palatinate of the Rhine, his possessions in the Netherlands and Alsace, and the duchies of Juliers and Deux Ponts; receiving as indemnities four bishoprics, with ten abbeys, fifteen imperial towns, and two imperial villages.

In the conflicts between France and the continental powers, Bavaria continued to maintain a neutrality till 1805, when the elector entered into an alliance with Napoleon, who shortly afterwards raised him to the dignity of king, and enlarged his dominions at the same time, by the annexation of several imperial provinces. Of all the allies of the French emperor, no country has retained more solid advantages than Bavaria. Shortly after the campaign of 1806, when Austria, to purchase peace, sacrificed part of her possessions, Bavaria received a further enlargement, by the addition of Tyrol, Eichstadt, the eastern part of Passau, and other territories; when she began to assume a more important station among the surrounding states.

At the dissolution of the Germanic confederation, and the formation of the Rhenish confederation, another alteration took place, the duchy of Berg being resigned for the margraviate of Anspach, together with the imperial town of Augsburg and Nuremburg. In 1809, Bavaria again took part with France against Austria, and again shared in the spoils of war;

but subsequently ceded some of her territories to Wirtemburg and Wurtzburg; and by another alteration, which shortly followed, exchanged a great part of Tyrol for Bayreuth and Ratisbon.

But the friendship of the Bavarian monarch for his ally and patron was soon to be put to the test. When the thirst for military conquest induced Napoleon to march the French armies to Moscow, the Bavarian troops were among the number. Apprehending the ruin that awaited the French, but while the fortunes of Napoleon were still doubtful, the king of Bavaria seized the critical moment, and entered into a treaty with the emperor of Austria, and joined the allies in crushing that power which had long held so many nations in thraldom. These important services were not forgotten. Bavaria was confirmed in her extensive acquisitions by the treaties of 1814 and 1815; for though Austria recovered her ancient possessions in the Tyrol, &c., Bavaria received equivalents in Franconia and the vicinity of the Rhine. Though the inferior kingdoms and states of Germany are of too little importance to become principals in any European wars, they are frequently found very effective allies, as was the case with Bavaria. Its army during the war amounted to sixty thousand men.

In the history of Greece it will be seen that Otho, a Bavarian prince, was, in 1832, elected king of that country; and that, in 1843, he consented to give his subjects a more liberal government.

HANOVER.

The kingdom of Hanover, which, until the year 1815, was an electorate, was formed out of the duchies formerly possessed by several families belonging to he junior branches of the house of Brunswick. The house of Hanover may, indeed, vie with any in Germany for antiquity and nobleness. It sprung from the ancient family of the Guelphs, dukes and electors of Bavaria, one of whom, Henry the Lion, in 1140, married Maude, eldest daughter of Henry II. king of England. Their son William, called Longsword, was created first duke thereof. The dominions descended in a direct line to Ernest, who divided them, upon his death in 1546, into two branches; that of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, and Brunswick Luneburg. The possessor of the latter, Ernest Augustus, was, in 1692, raised to the dignity of an elector; before which he was head of the college of German princes. Ernest married Sophia, daughter of Frederic, elector palatine, and king of Bohemia, by Elizabeth, daughter of James I., king of Great Britain. Sophia being the next protestant heir to the crown of England, through the medium of the house of Stuart, the parliament fixed the succession upon her, on the demise of the reigning queen Anne. Sophia died a short time before the queen; and her eldest son, George Louis, in consequence, became king of Great Britain. This was in 1714 from which time till 1837, at the death of William IV., both England and Hanover have had the same sovereign.

The families set aside from the succession by the parliament on that occasion, independent of the family of King James II. by Mary of Este, were as follows: the royal houses of Savoy, France, and Spain, descendants of Charles I., through his daughter Henrietta; Orleans and Lorraine, descendants of James I. through Charles Louis, elector palatine, eldest

son of Elizabeth, daughter of the said king; Salm, Ursel, Condé, Conti, Maine, Modena, and Austria, descendants of James I., through Edward, elector-palatine, youngest son of the said Elizabeth. The history of Hanover for the two centuries preceding the Lutheran reformation presents little interest, except in the connection of its princes with the wars of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, in the latter end of the fourteenth century. Among the most zealous supporters of the reformation, however, were the princes of Brunswick; and their subjects, during the thirty years' war, very effectively supported their anti-papal efforts. Ernest of Zell, the reigning duke at that period, was one of the most eloquent defenders of Luther at the diet of Worms; and his endeavours to improve the people by establishing clerical and general schools, when learning was appreciated by only a few, shew him to have been a man of enlightened and liberal views.

On the accession of her present Majesty to the throne of Great Britain, the Hanoverian crown, by virtue of the salic law, devolved on her uncle Ernest, duke of Cumberland, fifth but eldest surviving son of George III. It had previously been for many years under the viceroyship of the duke of Cambridge. Hanover suffered in the French war of 1757; but it experienced still greater sufferings during the French revolutionary war, after the enemy got possession of it. At the peace af Amiens, it was given up to the king of Great Britain; but that peace being of very short duration, it again fell into the hands of the French, without resistance, or without an effort to save it, on the part of the inhabitants or the government. In 1804 Prussia took possession of Hanover, but ceded it in the same year to the French, who constituted it a part of the kingdom of Westphalia, established in 1808. At the peace of 1813, the king of Great Britain reclaimed his rightful dominions, which were then formed into a kingdom, and much enlarged by the stipulations of the treaty of Vienna.

The countries which compose what is called Hanover, consist of Luneburg, acquired by inheritance in 1292; Danneburg, by purchase, 1303; Grubenhagen, by inheritance, 1679; Hanover (Culenburg), by inheritance, 1679; Diepholtz, by exchange, 1685; Hoya, by inheritance, in part, 1582; the remaining part by a grant from the emperor, in 1705; Lauenburg, by inheritance, 1706; Bremen and Verden, by purchase, 1715 and 1719; Wildeshausen, by purchase, 1720; and the Hadeln-land, 1731. The district of Lauenburg has since been ceded for the bishopric of Hildeshiem, the principality of East Friesland, the districts of Lingen, Harlingen, &c.

Hanover so long formed an appendage to the British crown that we are induced to extend this slight history by quoting a further account of its government: "Before Prussia ceded Hanover to France, in 1804, the form of government was monarchial, and the various territories were subject to feudal lords. The peasants of the marsh lands had more freedom, and in East Friesland the constitution of the country was almost republican. In the territories of the princes of the empire, the representation of the people by estates, composed of the nobles, prelates, and deputies from the towns, served to check the power of the sovereign, as in other parts of Germany. In 1808, when Napoleon created the kingdom of Westphalia, the territories of Hanover, with the districts of Hildesheim and Osnabruck, formed a part of it, and the code Napoleon took the place of the ancient laws, and a sham representative government was established. On the return of the rightful sovereign to Hanover, in 1813, the French institutions were summarily abolished, and the old forms re-established; and in 1818 the estates, summoned upon the ancient footing, drew up the form of a new constitution, modelled on that of England and France, and substituting a uniform system of presentation for the various representative forms which prevailed under the empire. As the salic law, excluding females from the succession to the throne, prevails in Hanover, William IV. was succeeded by his eldest surviving brother, Ernest, duke of Cumber-

land, in England. He, however, is considered an arbitrary ruler, quite incable of concentrating the affections of his people. A treaty of mutual inheritance has long existed between Hanover and Brunswick, which was formally renewed in 1836, and by which the Hanoverian crown is declared to descend to the dukes of Brunswick on the extinction of male heirs of the line of Hanover."

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

CHAPTER I.

This deservedly celebrated country of antiquity—the seat of science, literature, and the fine arts, at a period when the greater part of the European continent was involved in the obscurity of a barbaric ignorance—in its most palmy state comprised the southern portion of the great eastern peninsula of Europe, and extended to about 42° of north latitude, including Thessaly and a part of Modern Albania, with the Ionian islands, Crete, and the islands of the Archipelago. Modern Greece, although not so considerable in extent as the far-famed Greece of ancient date, comprises the territories of all the most celebrated and interesting of the Grecian states.

By all the accounts which have been handed down, the earliest inhabitants of Greece were barbarous in the extreme. They lived on those fruits of the earth which grew spontaneously; their shelter was in dens or caves, and their country was one wild uncultivated desert. By slow degrees they advanced towards civilization, forming themselves into regular societies to cultivate the lands, and build towns and cities. But their original barbarity and mutual violence prevented them from uniting as one nation, or even into any considerable community: and hence the great number of states into which Greece was originally divided.

The history of Greece is divided into three principal periods—the periods of its rise, its power, and its fall. The first extends from the origin of the people, about 1800 B. C., to Lycurgus, 875 years B. C.; the second extends from that time to the conquest of Greece by the Romans, 146 B. C.; the third shows us the Greeks as a conquered people, constantly on the decline, until at length, about A. D. 300, the old Grecian states were swallowed up in the Byzantine empire. According to tradition, the Pelasgi, under Inachus, were the first people who wandered into Greece. They dwelt in caves in the earth, supporting themselves on wild fruits, and eating the flesh of their conquered enemies, until Phoroneus, who is called king of Argos, began to introduce civilization among them.

Some barbarous tribes received names from the three brothers, Achæus, Pelasgus, and Pythius, who led colonies from Arcadia into Thessaly, and also from Thessalus and Græcus (the sons of Pelasgus) and others. Deucalion's flood, 1514 B. C., and the emigration of a new people from Asia, the Hellenes, produced great changes. The Hellenes spread themselves over Greece, and drove out the Pelasgi, or mingled with them. Their name became the general name of the Greeks. Greece now raised itself from its savage state, and improved still more rapidly after the arrival of some Phœnician and Egyptian colonies. About sixty years after the

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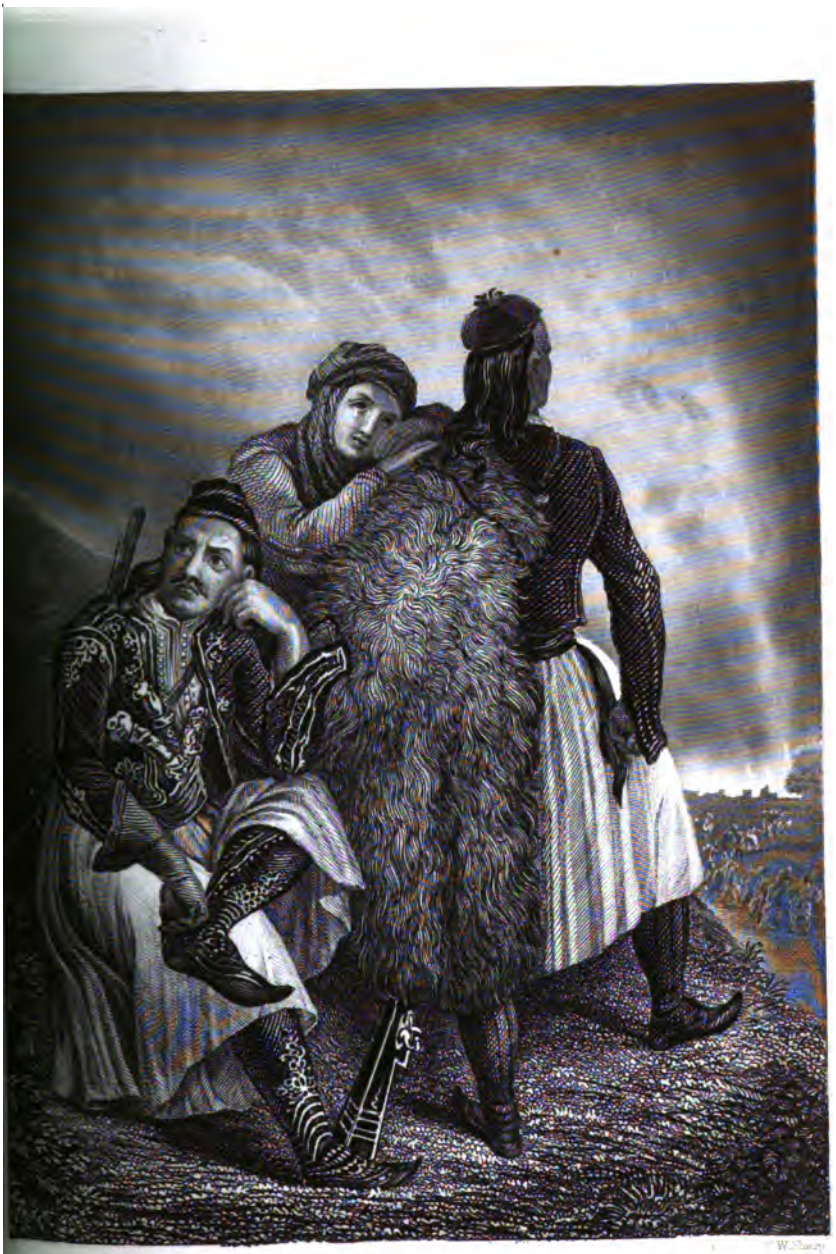

GREEK PATRIOTS.

flood of Deucalion, Cadmus the Phœnician settled in Thebes, and introduced a knowledge of the alphabet. Ceres from Sicily, Triptolemus from Eleusis, taught the nation agriculture, and Bacchus planted the vine.

Now began the heroic age, to which Hercules, Jason, Pirithous, and Theseus belong, and that of the old bards and sages, as Tamyris, Amphion, Orpheus, Linus, Musæus, Chiron, and many others. A warlike spirit filled the whole nation, so that every quarrel called the heroes of Greece to arms; as, for instance, the war against Thebes, and the Trojan war, 1200 B.C., which latter forms one of the principal epochs in the history of Greece. This war deprived many kingdoms of their princes, and produced a general confusion, of which the Heraclidæ took advantage, eighty years after the destruction of Troy, to possess themselves of the Peloponnesus. They drove out the Ionians and Achæans, who took refuge in Attica. But, not finding here sufficient room, Neleus (1044) led an Ionian colony to Asia Minor, where a colony of Æolians, from the Peloponesus, had already settled, and was followed eighty years after, by a colony of Dorians. In other states republics were founded, viz., in Phocis, in Thebes, and in the Asiatic colonies, and at length also in Athens and many other places; so that for the next 400 years, all the southern part of Greece was, for the most part, occupied by republics. Their prosperity and the fineness of the climate, in the meantime, made the Asiatic colonies the mother of the arts and learning. They gave birth to the songs of Homer and Hesoid. There commerce, navigation flourished. Greece, however, still retained its ancient simplicity of manners, and was unacquainted with luxury. If the population of any state became too numerous, colonies were sent out; for example, in the 7th and 8th centuries, the powerful colonies of Rhegium, Syracuse, Sybaris, Crotona, Tarentum, Gela, Locris, and Messèna were planted in Sicily and the southern parts of Italy. The small independent states of Greece needed a common bond of union. This bond was found in the temple of Delphi, the Amphictyonic council, and the solemn games, among which the Olympic were the most distingnished, the institution, or rather revival of which, 776 B. C. furnishes the Greeks with a chronological era. From this time Athens and Sparta began to surpass the other states of Greece in power and importance.

At the time of the Persian war, Greece had already made important advances in civilization. Besides the art of poetry, we find that philosophy began to be cultivated 600 B. C., and even earlier in Ionia and Lower Italy than in Greece Proper. Statuary and painting were in a flourishing condition. The important colonies of Massilia (Marseilles) in Gaul, and Agrigentum in Sicily, were founded. Athens was continually extending her commerce, and established important commercial posts in Thrace. In Asia Minor, the Grecian colonies were brought under the dominion of the Lydian Crœsus, and soon after under that of Cyrus. Greece itself was threatened with a similar fate by the Persian kings, Darius and Xerxes. Then the heroic spirit of the free Greeks showed itself in its greatest brilliancy. Athens and Sparta almost alone withstood the vast armies of the Persian; and the battles of Marathon, Thermopylæ, and Platæa, as well as the sea fights at Artemisium, Salamis, and Mycale, taught the Persians that the Greeks were not to be subdued by them. Athens now exceeded all the other states in splendour and in power. The supremacy which Sparta had hitherto maintained, devolved on this city, whose commander, Cimon, compelled the Persians to acknowledge the independence of Asia Minor Athens was also the centre of the arts and sciences. The Peloponnesian war now broke out, Sparta being no longer able to endure the overbearing pride of Athens. This war devastated Greece, and enslaved Athens, until Thrasybulus again restored its freedom; and, for a short time, Sparta was compelled, in her turn, to bend before the Theban heroes, Epaminondas and Pelopidas. In spite of these disturbances

poets, philosophers, artists, and statesmen, continued to arise, commerce flourished, and manners and customs were carried to the highest degree of refinement. But that unhappy period had now arrived, when the Greeks, ceasing to be free, ceased to advance in civilization.

A kingdom, formed by conquest, had grown up on the north of Greece, the ruler of which, Philip, united courage with cunning. The dissensions which prevailed among the different states, afforded him opportunity to execute his ambitious plans, and the battle of Chæronea, 338 B. C., gave Macedonia the command of all Greece. In vain did the subjugated states hope to become free after his death. The destruction of Thebes was sufficient to subject all Greece to the young Alexander. This prince, as generalissimo of the Greeks, gained the most splendid victories over the Persians. An attempt to liberate Greece, occasioned by a false report of his death, was frustrated by Antipater. The Lamian war, after the death of Alexander, was equally unsuccessful. Greece was now little better than a Macedonian province. Luxury had enervated the ancient courage and energy of the nation. At length, most of the states of southern Greece, Sparta and Ætolia excepted, concluded the Achæan league, for the maintainance of their freedom against the Macedonians. A dispute having arisen between this league and Sparta, the latter applied to Macedonia for help, and was victorious. But this friendship was soon fatal, for it involved Greece in the contest between Philip and the Romans, who, at first, indeed, restored freedom to the Grecian states, while they changed Ætolia, and soon after Macedonia, into Roman provinces; but they afterward began to excite dissensions in the Achæan league, interfered in the quarrels of the Greeks, and finally compelled them to take up arms to maintain their freedom. So unequal a contest could not long remain undecided; the capture of Corinth, 146 B. C., placed the Greeks in the power of the Romans.

During the whole period which elapsed between the battle of Chæronea and the destruction of Corinth by the Romans, the arts and sciences flourished among the Greeks; indeed, the golden age of the arts was in the time of Alexander. The Grecian colonies were yet in a more flourishing condition than the mother country; especially Alexandria, in Egypt, which became the seat of learning. As they, also, in process of time, fell under the dominion of the Romans, they became like their mother country, the instructors of their conquerors. In the time of Augustus, the Greeks lost even the shadow of their former freedom, and ceased to be an independent people, although their language, manners, customs, learning, arts, and taste spread over the whole Roman empire. The character of the nation was now sunk so low, that the Romans esteemed a Greek as the most worthless of creatures. Asiatic luxury had wholly corrupted them; their ancient love of freedom and independence was extinguished; and a mean servility was substituted in its place. At the beginning of the fourth century, the nation scarcely showed a trace of the noble characteristics of their fathers. The barbarians soon after began their ruinous incursions into Greece.

The principal traits in the character of the ancient Greeks, were simplicity and grandeur. The Greek was his own instructor, and if he learned anything from others, he did it with freedom and independence. Nature was his great model, and in his native land she displayed herself in all her charms. The uncivilized Greek was manly and proud, active and enterprising, violent both in his hate and in his love. He esteemed and exercised hospitality toward strangers and countrymen. These features of the Grecian character had an important influence on the religion, politics, manners, and philosophy of the nation. The gods of Greece were not, like those of Asia, surrounded by a holy obscurity: they were human in their faults and virtues, but were placed far above mortals. They kept

up an intercourse with men; good and evil came from their hands; all physical and moral endowments were their gift. The moral system of the earliest Greeks taught them to honour the gods by an exact observance of customs; to hold the rights of hospitality sacred, and even to spare murderers, if they fled to the sanctuaries of the gods for refuge. Cunning and revenge were allowed to be practiced against enemies. No law enforced continence. The power of the father, of the husband, or the brother, alone guarded the honour of the female sex, who therefore lived in continual dependence. The seducer brought his gifts and offerings to the gods, as if his conduct had been guiltless. The security of domestic life rested entirely in the master of the family.

From these characteristic traits of the earliest Greeks originated, in the sequel, the peculiarities of their religious notions, their love of freedom and action, their taste for the beautiful and the grand, and the simplicity of their manners. The religion of the Greeks was not so much mingled with superstition as that of the Romans; thus, for example, they were unacquainted with the practice of augury. The Greek was inclined to festivity even in religion, and served the gods less in spirit than in outward ceremonies. His religion had little influence on his morals, his belief, and the government of his thoughts. All it required was a belief in the gods, and in a future existence; freedom from gross crimes, and an observance of prescribed rites. The simplicity of their manners, and some obscure notions of a supreme God, who hated and punished evil, loved and rewarded good, served at first to maintain good morals and piety among them. These notions were afterwards exalted and systematized by poetry and philosophy; and the improvement spread from the cultivated classes through the great mass of the people.

In the most enlightened period of Greece, clearer ideas of the unity of the deity, of his omniscience, his omnipresence, his holiness, his goodness, his justice, and of the necessity of worshipping him by virtue and purity of heart, prevailed. The moral system of some individuals among the Greeks was equally pure. The precepts of morality were delivered at first in sententious maxims; for example, the sayings of the seven wise men. Afterwards, Socrates and his disciples arose, and promulgated their pure doctrines. The love of freedom among the Greeks sprang from their good fortune, in having lived so long without oppression or fear of other nations, and from their natural vivacity of spirit. It was this which made small armies invincible, and which caused Lycurgus, Solon, and Timoleon to refuse crowns. Their freedom was the work of nature, and the consequence of their original patriarchal mode of life. Their first kings were considered as fathers of families, to whom obedience was willingly paid, in return for protection and favours. Important affairs were decided by the assemblies of the people. Each man was master in his own house, and in early times no taxes were paid. But as the kings strove continually to extend their powers, they were ultimately compelled to resign their dignities; and free states arose, with forms of government inclining more or less to aristocracy or democracy, or composed of a union of the two; the citizens were attached to a government which was administered under the direction of wise laws, and not of arbitrary power. It was this noble love of a free country, which prompted Leonidas to say to the king of Persia, that he would rather die than hold a despotic sway over Greece. It was this which inspired Solon, Themistocles, Demosthenes, and Phocion, when, in spite of the ingratitude of their countrymen, they chose to serve the state and the laws, rather than their own interests. The cultivation of their fruitful country, which, by the industry of the inhabitants, afforded nourishment to several milli- and the wealth of their colonies, prove the activity of the Greeks. merce, navigation, and manufactures flourished on all sides; kr

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of every sort was accumulated; the spirit of invention was busily at work; the Greeks learned to estimate the pleasures of society, but they also learned to love luxury. From these sources of activity sprang also a love of great actions and great enterprises, so many instances of which are furnished by Grecian history. Another striking trait of the Grecian character, was a love of the beautiful, both physical and intellectual. This sense of the beautiful, awakened and developed by nature, created for itself an ideal of beauty, which served them, and has been transmitted to us, as a criterion for every work of art.

CHAPTER II.

We have seen to what a state of degradation the Greeks were reduced in a few centuries after their subjugation by the Romans. Thus it continued as long as it was either really or nominally a portion of the Roman empire; till at length, like the imperial mistress of the world herself, it bent before the all-subduing Alaric the Goth, A. D. 400; and shared in all the miseries which were brought by the northern barbarians who successively overran and ravaged the south of Europe. After the Latin conquest of Constantinople, in 1204, Greece was divided into feudal principalities, and governed by a variety of Norman, Venetian, and Frankish nobles; but in 1261, with the exception of Athens and Nauplia, it was re-united to the Greek empire by Michael Paleologus. But it not long remained unmolested; for the Turks then rising into notice, aimed at obtaining power in Europe: and Amurath II. deprived the Greeks of all their cities and castles on the Euxine sea, and along the coasts of Thrace, Macedon, and Thessaly; carrying his victorious arms, in short, into the midst of the Peloponnesus. The Grecian emperors acknowledged him as their superior lord, and he, in turn, afforded them protection. This conquest, however, was not effected without a brave resistance, particularly from two heroic Christians, John Hunniades, a celebrated Hungarian general, and George Castriot, an Albanian prince, better known in history by the name of Scanderberg.

When Mohammed II., in 1451, ascended the Ottoman throne, the fate of the Greek empire seemed to be decided, At the head of an army of 300,000 men, supported by a fleet of 300 sail, he laid siege to Constantinople, and encouraged his troops by spreading reports of prophecies and prodigies that portended the triumph of Islamism. Constantine, the last of the Greek emperors, met the storm with becoming resolution, and maintained the city for fifty-three days, though the fanaticism and fury of the besiegers were raised to the highest pitch. At length, (May 29, 1453) the Turks stormed the walls, and the brave Constantine perished at the head of his faithful troops. The final conquest of Greece did not, however, take place till 1481. Neither were the conquerors long left in undisturbed possession of their newly-acquired territory; and during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Greece was the scene of obstinate wars, till the treaty of Passarovitz, in 1718, confirmed the Turks in their conquest; and for a century from that time the inhabitants of Greece groaned under their despotic sway.

At the time of the expedition of the French into Egypt, the Greeks, strongly excited by the events of the war, which was thus approaching them, waited for them as liberators, with the firm resolution of going to meet them and regaining their liberty; but again their hopes were disappointed, and the succors they expected from France were removed to a distance. Having waited in vain, in the midst of the great events which in several respects have changed the whole face of Europe in this century, the Greeks, taking counsel only of their despair, and indignant at living always as helots on the ruins of Sparta and of Athens, when nations but

of yesterday were recovering their rights and recognizing their social relations, rose against their despotic and cruel masters, perhaps with greater boldness than prudence. The first decided movement took place in the year 1800, when the Servians, provoked by the cruelty of their oppressors the Turks, made a general insurrection, which was headed by their famous chief Czerni George, who had been a sergeant in the Austrian service, and afterward became a bandit chief. He was possessed of much energy of character and bravery; and under him the Servians obtained several victories. He blockaded Belgrade; and, one of the gates being surrendered to him, he made his entry into the city and slaughtered all the Turks that were found in it.

At this time the affairs of the Porte were in great disorder. It had but just terminated its war with France; and the efforts by which it had been endeavouring to reduce Paswan Oglou, pacha of Widden, had failed and ended in disgrace. At home the Janissaries were ever dissatisfied, and Roumelia was in a disturbed state. The divan, however, exerted themselves to quell the Servians, and they were aided by the Bosnians, in consequence of which many sanguinary combats took place. But relying on the promises of Russia, and receiving pecuniary succour from Ypsilanti, the insurgents continued the contest, issuing from their fastnesses on every favourable opportunity, and making their progress a terror to the country by spreading devastation in every direction. In the meantime Russia openly declared war against the Porte in 1807, and carried on the war until 1812, when the treaty of Bucharest was negociated; and though some efforts were made to obtain a concession in favour of their Servian allies, yet one difficulty after another being started by the Porte, a peace was at length concluded, as before, upon such terms as left the insurgents to their fate. At length it was agreed, that Milosh, brother-in-law to Czerni George, a native, should be their prince; that the sum of £100,000 should be paid yearly to the Turks, whose garrisons in the fortresses of the Danube were to be limited, and that the prince should maintain a few national forces, for the regulation of the internal policy.

The period that intervened between 1815 and 1820 was apparently tranquil: the Ottoman affairs seemed prosperous; the Sultan Mahmoud, by his vigorous measures, maintained peace with his neighbours, quelled the spirit of the mutinous Janissaries, suppressed several revolts in the eastern part of the empire, drove the Wechabites from Mecca, and gave more weight to the imperial firmans than they had heretofore possessed. But under this appearance of tranquillity, all those projects were forming which produced what we term "the Greek revolution." The Greeks soon became more open in their plots against their oppressors, and entertained some considerable hopes from the probable arrangements of the congress of Vienna; but that congress closed without effecting any result favourable to the liberties of Greece. This, however, did not damp the ardour of its friends, nor induce them to abandon the plans they had projected. At length, in 1820, symptoms of a general rising appeared: and all civilized nations seemed disposed to aid the cause of the oppressed. But that generous feeling in a great measure subsided, as the petty dissentions of party, or the despotic notions of arbitrary power, severally displayed themselves. The Turks and Greeks never became one nation; the relation of conquerors and conquered never ceased. However abject a large part of the Greeks became by their continued oppression, they never forgot that they were a distinct nation; and their patriarch at Constantinople remained a visible point of union for their national feelings.

On the 7th of March, 1821, a proclamation of Ypsilanti was placarded in Jassy, under the eyes of the hospodar, Michael Suzzo, which declared, that all the Greeks had on that day thrown off the Turkish yoke; that he would put himself at their head, with his countrymen; that Prince Suzzo

wished the happiness of the Greeks; and that nothing was to be feared, as a great power was going to march against Turkey. Several officers and members of the *Hetaireia* had accompanied Ypsilanti from Bessarabia and Jassy. Some Turks were murdered, but Ypsilanti did all in his power to prevent excess, and was generally successful. He wrote to the emperor of Russia, Alexander, who was then at Laybach, asking his protection for the Greek cause, and the two principalities, Wallachia and Moldavia; but the revolutions in Spain and Piedmont had just then broke out, and that monarch considered the Greek insurrection to be nothing but a political fever, caught from Spain and Italy, which could not be checked too soon; besides, Ypsilanti was actually in the service of Russia, and therefore had undertaken this step against the rules of military disc pline. Alexander publicly disavowed the measure; Ypsilanti's name was struck from the army rolls, and he was declared to be no longer a subject of Russia. The Russian minister, and the Austrian internuncio at Constantinople, also declared that their cabinets would not take advantage of the internal troubles of Turkey, in any shape whatever, but would remain strictly neutral. Yet the Porte continued suspicious, particularly after the information of an Englishman had led to the detection of some supposed traces of the Greek conspiracy at Constantinople. It, therefore, ordered the Russian vessels to be searched, contrary to treaty. The commerce of Odessa suffered from this measure, which occasioned a serious correspondence between Baron Stroganoff, the Russian ambassador, and the reis effendi. The most vigorous measures were taken against all Greeks; their schools were suppressed; their arms seized; suspicion was a sentence of death; the flight of some rendered all guilty, and it was prohibited under penalty of death: in the divan, the total extinction of the Greek name was proposed; Turkish troops marched into the principalities; the hospodar Suzzo was outlawed; the patriarchs of Constantinople and Jerusalem excommunicated all insurgents (March 21); and a hattisheriff of March 31, called upon the Mussulmans to arm against the rebels for the protection of the Islams. No Greek was, for some time, safe in the streets of Constantinople; women and children were thrown into the sea; the noblest families openly violated, and murdered or sold; the populace broke into the house of Fonton, the Russian counsellor of legation; and Prince Murusi was beheaded in the seraglio. After the arrival of the new grand-vizier, Benderli Ali Pacha, who conducted a disorderly army from Asia to the Bosphorus, the wildest fanaticism raged in Constantinople. In Wallachia and Moldavia the bloody struggle was brought to a close through the treachery, discord, and cowardice of the pandoors and Arnaouts, with the annihilation of the valiant "sacred band" of the *Hetaireia*, in the battle of Dragashan (June 19,1821), and with Jordaki's heroic death in the monastery of Seck.

In Greece Proper, no cruelty could quench the fire of liberty; the beys of the Morea invited all bishops and the noblest Greeks to Tripolizza, under pretence of consulting with them on the deliverance of the people from their cruel oppression. Several fell into the snare: when they arrived, they were thrown into prison. Germanos, archbishop of Patras, alone penetrated the intended treachery, and took measures with the others for frustrating the designs of their oppressors. The beys of the Morea then endeavoured to disarm the separate tribes; but it was too late; the Mainotes, always free, descended from Mount Taygetos, in obedience to Ypsilanti's proclamation; and the heart of all Greece beat for liberty. The revolution in the Morea began, March 23, 1821, at Calavrita, a small place in Achaia, where eighty Turks were made prisoners. On the same day the Turkish garrison of Patras fell upon the Greek inhabitants; but they were soon relieved. In the ancient Laconia, Colocotroni and Peter Mavromichalis roused the people to arms. The archbishop Germanos co-

lected the peasants of Achaia. In Patras and the other places, the Turks retreated into the fortresses. As early as April 6, a Messenian senate assembled in Calamata, and the bey of Maina, Peter Mavromichalis, as commander-in-chief, proclaimed that the Morea had shaken of the yoke of Turkey to save the Christian faith, and to restore the ancient character of their country. "From Europe, nothing is wanted but money, arms, and counsels." From that time the suffering Greeks found friends in Germany, France, Switzerland, Britain, and the United States, who sympathized with them, and did all in their power to assist them in their struggle. The cabinets of Europe, on the contrary, threw every impediment in the way of the Hellenists, until they were finally obliged, against their inclination, to interfere in their favour.

Jussuf Selim, pacha of Lepanto, having received information of these events from the diplomatic agent of a European power, hastened to relieve the citadel of Patras, and the town was changed into a heap of ruins. The massacre of the inhabitants, April 15, was the signal for a struggle of life and death. Almost the whole war was thenceforward a succession of atrocities. It was not a war prosecuted on any fixed plan, but merely a series of devastations and murders. The law of nations could not exist between the Turks and Greeks, as they were then situated. The monk Gregoras, soon after, occupied Corinth, at the head of a body of Greeks. The revolution spread over Attica, Bœotia, Phocis, Ætolia, and Acarnania. The ancient names were revived. At the same time, the islanders declared themselves free. In some islands the Turks were massacred, in revenge for the murder of the Greeks at Patras; and, in retaliation, the Greeks were put to death at Smyrna, in Asia Minor, and in those islands which had not yet shaken off the Turkish yoke. The exasperation was raised to its highest pitch by the cruelties committed against the Greeks in Constantinople after the end of March. On mere suspicion, and often merely to get possession of their property, the divan caused the richest Greek merchants and bankers to be put to death. The rage of the Mussulmans was particularly directed against the Greek clergy. The patriarch of Constantinople was murdered, with his bishops, in the metropolis. In Adrianople, the venerable patriarch Cyrillus, who had retired to solitude, and Prœsos, archbishop of Adrianople, and others, met the same fate. Several hundred Greek churches were torn down, without the divan paying any attention to the remonstrances of the Christian ambassadors. The savage grand-vizier, indeed, lost his place, and soon after his life; but Mahmoud and his favourite, Halet effendi, persisted in the plan of extermination.

The commerce of Russia, on the Black Sea, was totally ruined by the blockade of the Bosphorus, and the ultimatum of the ambassador was not answered. Baron Stroganoff, therefore, broke off all diplomatic relations with the reis effendi, July 18, and on the 31st, embarked for Odessa. He had declared to the divan that, if the Porte did not change its system, Russia would feel herself obliged to give "the Greeks refuge, protection, and assistance." The answer of the reis effendi to this declaration, given too late, was sent to Petersburg; but it was after the most atrocious excesses, committed by the janissaries, and the troops from Asia, that the foreign ministers, particularly the British minister, Lord Strangford, succeeded in inducing the grand-seignior to recall the command for the arming of all Mussulmans, and to restore order.

CHAPTER III.

All eyes were fixed on Tripolizza, which was now in a state of close blockade, and its fall daily expected. The usual population was about fifteen thousand souls; it is also computed, that the garrison, with all the

Albanians of the Kiayah, amounted to eight thousand men; there could not, therefore, have been fewer than twenty thousand persons within the walls; yet they allowed themselves to be blockaded by five thousand undisciplined and ill-armed Greeks, without artillery or cavalry. While the Turkish horse were in a state for service, the Greeks did not attempt anything in the plain; but their forage soon failed, and the only food they could get was vine leaves. Provision was very scarce, and the Greeks had cut the pipes, and thus intercepted the supply of water. Ypsilanti, however, was impatient, and felt anxious to begin a regular siege; but he had neither proper ordnance nor engineers. Some cannon and mortars had indeed been brought from Malvasia and Navarin, and were entrusted to the care of an Italian adventurer; but in the first essay he burst a mortar, and was dismissed. Things were in this state, when Prince Mavracordato arrived, bringing with him some French and Italian officers.

In the beginning of October the Turks began to make propositions for a capitulation, and the treaty was proceeding, on the 5th, when an accidental circumstance rendered it of no avail, and hastened the catastrophe. Some Greek soldiers, having approached one of the gates, began to converse and, as usual, to barter fruit with the sentinels. The Turks imprudently assisted them in mounting the wall, but no sooner had they gained the top than they threw down the infidels, opened the gate, and displayed the standard of the cross above it; the Christians instantly rushed from all quarters to the assault, and the disorder became general. The Turks immediately opened a brisk fire of cannon and small shot; but the gates were carried; the walls scaled, and a desperate struggle was kept up in the streets and houses. Before the end of the day the contest was over, and the citadel, which held out till the next evening, surrendered at discretion. About six thousand Turks, it is said, perished, some thousands were made prisoners, and numbers fled to the mountains.

While these transactions were occurring at Tripolizza, four pachas proceeded, in the month of August, from the frontiers of Thessaly and Macedonia, to Zeitouni, with the design of forcing the straits of Thermopylæ, and in conjunction with the Ottoman troops at Thebes and Athens, relieving the besieged fortresses in the Morea. Odysseus was stationed on a height above the defiles at a place called Fontana. They sent a body of three hundred horse to reconnoitre his position, but this detachment was cut to pieces. The next day they attacked him with their whole force; at first the Greeks gave way, but a brave chief, named Gonraz, made a stand, and rallied the fugitives. They returned to the charge, and the infidels were routed with the loss of twelve hundred men. One of the pachas was slain, and vast quantities of baggage and ammunition taken. This was on the 31st of Aug., and was a victory of immense importance to the cause. About the same time the bishop of Carystus raised an insurrection in Eubœa, and endeavoured to intercept the communication between Athens and that island. An assembly was now called, to meet at Argos, for the purpose of organizing a government, and the prince repaired thither to attend it; while deputies in the meantime arrived from different parts to demand succours from the administration of the peninsula, and to report what was doing in their districts. In Macedonia the monks of Mount Athos, provoked by the violent proceedings of the Turks, were driven into revolt.

The assemblage of congress had been regarded as a new and important era in the Greek revolution; the anxiety of the nation for the organization of a government was evident from the eagerness with which the people elected the deputies. By the middle of December not less than sixty had arrived, including ecclesiastics, landowners, merchants, and civilians, most of whom had been liberally educated. They first named a commission to draw up a political code; the rest were occupied in ex-

amining the general state of the nation, and laying plans for the next campaign. On the 27th of January, 1822, the indendence of the country was proclaimed, and its code published amid the joyful acclamations of the deputies, the army, and the people. The government was for the present styled "provincial," while the promulgation of the constitution was accompanied with an address, exhibiting the reasons for shaking off the Turkish yoke. Five members of the congress were nominated as an executive, and Prince Mavrocordato was appointed president. Ministers were appointed for the different departments of war, finance, public instruction, the interior, and police; and a commission named of three individuals to superintend the naval affairs.

The new government signalized their liberty by a decree for the abolition of slavery, as well as the sale of any Turkish prisoners who might fall into their hands, prohibiting it under the severest penalties; they also passed another edict for a compensation for military services, and a provision for the widows and orphans of those who should fall in battle; and a third regulating the internal administration of the provinces. The organization of the army was also commenced; a corps, called the first regiment of the line was formed and officered from the volunteers of different nations, and as there were more of them than were requisite for this service, a second was formed of the remainder, which took the name of Philhellenes. Patras was blockaded again by three thousand men, and a smaller body under the French colonel Voutier was sent to Athens, to reduce the Acropolis; the forces before Napoli were augmented, and Modon and Coron closely invested by the armed peasantry around. An event, the most terrific and atrocious that history has ever recorded, marked the commencement of the second campaign: the destruction of Scio, and its miserable inhabitants. The Sciots had taken no part in the movement of 1821. In the beginning of May, in that year, a small squadron of Ipsariots appearing off the coast, furnished the aga with a pretext for his oppressions, and he began by seizing forty of the elders and bishops, who were immured as hostages for the good conduct of the people.

"On the 23rd of April," says Mr. Blaquiere, "a fleet of fifty sail, including five of the line, anchored in the bay, and immediately began to bombard the town, while several thousand troops were landed under the guns of the citadel, which also opened a heavy fire on the Greeks. It was in vain for the islanders to make any resistance: deserted by the Samians, most of whom embarked and sailed away when the Turkish fleet hove in sight, they were easily overpowered and obliged to fly. From this momoment, until the last direful act, Scio, lately so great an object of admiration to strangers, presented one continued scene of horror and dismay. Having massacred every soul, whether men, women, or children, whom they found in the town, the Turks plundered and then set fire to it, and watched the flames until not a house was left, except those of the foreign consuls. Three days had, however, been suffered to pass, before the infidels ventured to penetrate into the interior of the island, and even then their excesses were confined to the low grounds. While some were occupied in plundering the villas of rich merchants, and others setting fire to the villages, the air was rent with the mingled groans of men, women, and children, who were falling under the swords and daggers of the infidels. The only exception made during the massacre was in favour of young women and boys, who were preserved to be afterward sold as slaves. Many of the former, whose husbands had been butchered, were running to and fro frantic, with torn garments and dishevelled hair, pressing their trembling infants to their breasts, and seeking death as a relief from the still greater calamities that awaited them. About forty thousand of both sexes had already either fallen victims to the sword, or been selected for sale in the bazaars, when it occurred to the pacha, that no

time should be lost in persuading those who had fled to the more inaccessible parts of the island, to lay down their arms and submit. It being impossible to effect this by force, they had recourse to a favourite expedient with Mussulmans—that of proclaiming an amnesty. In order that no doubt should be entertained of their sincerity, the foreign consuls, more particularly those of England, France, and Austria, were called upon to guarantee the promises of the Turks; they accordingly went forth and invited the unfortunate peasantry to give up their arms and return. Notwithstanding their long experience of Turkish perfidy, the solemn pledge given by the consuls at length prevailed, and many thousands who might have successfully resisted until succours had arrived, were sacrificed: for no sooner did they descend from the heights, and give up their arms, than the infidels, totally unmindful of the proffered pardon, put them to death without mercy. The number of persons, of every age and sex, who became the victims of this perfidious act was estimated at seven thousand. After having devoted ten days to the work of slaughter, it was natural to suppose that the monsters who directed this frightful tragedy would have been in some degree satiated by the blood of so many innocent victims; but it was when the excesses had begun to diminish, on the part of the soldiery, that fresh scenes of horror were exhibited on board the fleet and in the citadel. In addition to the women and children embarked for the purpose of being conveyed to the markets of Constantinople and Smyrna, several hundreds of the natives were also seized, and among these, all the gardeners of the island, who were supposed to know where the treasures of their employers had been concealed. There were no less than five hundred of the persons thus collected hung on board the different ships; when these executions commenced, they served as a signal to the commandant of the citadel, who immediately followed the example, by suspending the whole of the hostages, to the number of seventy-six, on gibbets erected for the occasion. With respect to the numbers who were either killed or consigned to slavery, during the three weeks that followed the arrival of the capitan-pacha, there is no exaggeration in placing the former at twenty-five thousand souls. It has been ascertained that above thirty thousand women and children were condemned to slavery, while the fate of those who escaped was scarcely less calamitous. Though many contrived to get off in open boats, or such other vessels as they could procure, thousands, who were unable to do so, wandered about the mountains, or concealed themselves in caves, without food or clothing, for many days after the massacre had begun to subside on the plains. Among those who had availed themselves of the pretended amnesty, many families took refuge in the houses of the consuls, who were indeed bound by every tie of honour and humanity, to afford them protection. It has however been asserted, upon authority, that the wretched beings thus saved from Mussulman vengeance were obliged to pay large ransoms before they could leave the island; nay, that it was extremely difficult to obtain even temporary protection under the Christian flags, without first gratifying avaricious demands."

At the commencement of the campaign, Colocotroni, with three hundred men, was dispatched to Patras, where a part of the Turkish fleet had landed a great body of men in the latter end of February. On his appoach the Turks went to meet him with almost all their force. Colocotroni, not considering himself strong enough to meet them, retreated to the mountains; but suddenly stopped, addressed his men, and wheeling about, advanced toward the enemy. Upon this the Turks, struck with a panic, thinking he had received notice of a reinforcement, turned their backs, and were pursued by the Greeks up to the walls of the town; five hundred of them were slain in less than two hours, and Colocotroni blockaded the place. The Ottoman fleet was pursued by the Greeks under

Miauli and Tombasi, and the admiral's frigate nearly fell into the hands of the Greeks. Marco Bozzario and Rango gained many advantages in Epirus, and took Arta, the key of Albania; but, owing to the treachery of Tairabos, it was abandoned. Odysseus and his companions endeavoured to check the enemy in Livadia and Negropont; but the disaster of the Greeks at Cassandra so much strengthened them, that they advanced again, and threw some reinforcements into Athens.

The fall of Ali Pacha had now so much increased the resources of Choursid, that he concerted measures which would have been the destruction of the Greek cause, had they been skillfully executed. Mavrocordato, in order to frustrate them, laid a plan to undertake an expedition into Epirus, draw off the Turks from the Morea, relieve the Suliotes, and carry the war into the heart of Albania. He communicated his plan to the executive, and it was determined to place five thousand men at the disposal of the president, who was to lead the expedition in person. The only forces, however, which could be mustered, were the corps of the Philhellenes, and the first regiment of the line, neither of them complete, with seven hundred men, commanded by General Norman and Kiriakouli, to relieve the Suliotes. He arrived at Patras on the 12th of June; but Colocotroni here opposed many difficulties to any of his troops being detached, and he was obliged to leave without the expected assistance. Accordingly, he sailed to Missolonghi with only a few hundred men. A large force of the enemy was in the meantime collected at Larissa and Zetouni; Colocotroni suddenly left the blockade of Patras, and proceeded, with all his army, to Tripolizza, leaving an opportunity for the Turkish garrison either to enter the Morea, or cross the Lepanto. Consternation prevailed in the Peloponnesus; and Corinth was abandoned and reoccupied by the enemy, not without the suspicion of treachery.

The situation of Ypsilanti was at this time very critical: he had no money or provisions, and hardly thirteen hundred men to oppose thirty thousand; he, therefore, in order to stop the enemy's progress, threw himself into the citadel of Argos, while Colocotroni took up the strong position of Lerno on the west of the gulf. The first body of the Turks, consisting of seven thousand cavalry and four thousand foot, halted near Argos, and part of it proceeded to Napoli; soon after Marchmont Pacha arrived with ten thousand more. The pacha, however, entered Napoli, and continued several days inactive; when, threatened with the extremities of famine and drought, he gave orders for the return to Corinth, and his army set out in the greatest disorder. Colocotroni attacked and destroyed five thousand of them in a few hours; the advanced guard was attacked in the defiles by the Mainiotes under Nikitas, and twelve hundred perished in the first onset. These successes happened between the 4th and 7th of August. On the 18th the pacha attempted to draw the Greeks into an ambuscade, but they got into his rear, and he was defeated with great loss; the next day, determining to regain the position they had lost, the Turks again attacked under Hadji Ali, who was slain in the engagement, and nearly two thousand of his men were lost, as well as a large quantity of baggage and several hundred horses. The Greeks, however, had no means of following up their successes.

Ypsilanti advanced to Napoli to assist in its reduction, while the troops left under the command of Coliopulo, not being supplied with rations or pay, became so weary of the service that the greater part withdrew, leaving Colocotroni's eldest son with two or three hundred men to continue the blockade of Corinth. Soon after this, Colocotroni, at the passes near the isthmus, stopped the Turks who wished to bring succours to Napoli: and they being driven to the greatest extremity of famine, and the Palamida or citadel having been surprised, the garrison had no alternative left them but to surrender. The Greeks took possession of this important

place on the 11th of January. The Turkish commanders, on the surrender of Napoli, determined to proceed to Patras, which the Greeks had lately neglected blockading. Setting out in the middle of January, they had reached Akrata near Vostitza, when a detachment from Missolonghi stopped one of the passes, and shortly after another body blocked up the other: so that the Turks were reduced to the greatest straits, feeding upon horses, the herbs on the rocks, their saddles, and at last one another. For nearly three weeks longer the place held out, when Odysseus arriving, and, one of the beys being acquainted with him, a negociation was commenced, by which the garrison obtained permission to embark, and the beys were sent prisoners to Napoli. The number of the enemy that perished on this occasion, without firing a shot, amounted, it is said, to two thousand. Thus ended the second campaign in the Morea, costing the Turks not fewer than twenty-five thousand men in the Peloponnesus alone.

The operations in Epirus, though on a smaller scale, were little less interesting. Mavrocordato put his forces in motion, and first making a feint as if he wished to reach Salona, returned on the village of Therasova, and entered Missolonghi on the 17th of October, where greater difficulties than ever awaited him. Here he was besieged by the Turks until the 9th of November, when the blockading squadron was chased away by six vessels bearing the Greek flag; and on the 14th Mavromichalis arrived with the long expected succours. A sortie was then made; but it was of little avail, and the garrison so much weakened, that Omar Vrioni determined to attack the place. Accordingly, on the morning of Christmas-day, at five o'clock, eight hundred men approached the walls with scaling ladders unperceived, and had even fixed some, but they were instantly cut down; the conflict that followed was desperate and sanguinary, and the Turks were obliged to retire with the loss of twelve hundred men and nine pieces of cannon. The rising now became general through the country, and the retreat of the enemy was intercepted in all quarters; so that of the whole force brought into the country, only three months before, not half escaped. Mavrocordato arrived in the Peloponnesus in the early part of April, 1823, after an absence of ten months.

The national congress met at Astros, a small town in Argos, on the 10th of April, 1823, in a garden under the shade of orange trees; nearly three hundred deputies were occupied in the debates, which began at sunrise. The following oath was taken at the first meeting by each member:—"I swear, in the name of God and my country, to act with a pure and unshaken patriotism, to promote a sincere union, and abjure every thought of personal interest in all the discussions which shall take place in this second national congress." Having settled a number of important points, its labours ended on the 30th. The third meeting of the congress was deferred for two years; and the executive and legislative body was transferred to Tripolizza, where measures were immediately taken for opening the third campaign. The enemy was not idle as the summer advanced; a fleet of seventeen frigates, and sixty smaller vessels, was sent with stores to supply the remaining fortresses in Negropont, Candia and the Morea; and after accomplishing this object, the capitan pacha arrived at Patras about the middle of June. Yusuff Pacha led on a large body to Thermopylæ, and Mustapha conducted another to the pass of Neopatra, near Zeitouni, the former, especially, laying waste the whole country, and committing all manner of excesses. Odysseus in the meantime arrived from Athens, and Nikitas from Tripolizza, and a sort of guerilla warfare was commenced, which so harrassed the Turks under Yusuff that they retreated in the greatest disorder. Mustapha was at-

tacked, and forced to take refuge at Carystos, where he was closely blockaded.

Marco Bozzaris, who commanded the Greeks at Crionero, fell on the Turks, and either killed or captured two-thirds of their number. The same brave leader undertook a forced march against Mustapha, who had 14,000 men, while he had only 2000. On assigning each man's part at midnight on the 19th, his last words were, "If you lose sight of me during the combat, seek me in the pacha's tent." On his arrival at the centre, he sounded his bugle, as agreed upon, and the enemy, panic-struck, fled in all directions. In the midst of the attack, which was now general, he was twice wounded, and at last carried off from the field expiring; the struggle, however, was maintained till day-light; when the Greeks were victorious on all points, and the loss of the enemy was not less than three thousand. One of the first acts of the capitan pacha, on his arrival with his fleet, had been to declare Missolonghi, and every other Greek port, in a state of blockade. The entrance of a few Greek gun-boats, however, was sufficient to set the capitan pacha at defiance; having remained inactive for above three months, and lost nearly a third of his crews by epidemics, he at length made the best of his way to the Archipelago.

At the commencement of the year 1824, proclamation was issued by the president and senate of the United States of the Ionian islands, declaring their neutrality, and their firm resolution not to take any part in the contest; also prohibiting any foreigner, who should do so, from residing in the islands. Among the Greeks, dissensions still prevailed, every faction following its own plans, and seeking to advance its own influence. Mavrocordato, Colocotroni, and Ypsilanti, headed different factions, among the members of which there was neither unanimity of counsel, nor uniformity of action. The Turkish fleet sailed on the 23rd of April. The Greek senate summoned Colocotroni to surrender himself, and to deliver up Napoli and Tripolizza, but he refused; the troops that were investing Patras quarrelled about the division of some of their booty, and were withdrawn; in the meantime the Turks sailed from Lepanto with fourteen ships, and blockaded Missolonghi. In order to encourage the Greeks, a loan of about £800,000 was contracted for in London. About this period Ipsara was threatened by the Turkish fleet, which was now at Mitylene. The island of Caso was attacked on the 8th of June by an Egyptian squadron, and after an obstinate resistance was taken on the 9th. Several naval actions occurred about this time, in which the Greeks generally had the advantage; and had not the long delay in paying the loan in London threatened ruin to the cause, the success of their arms was such as to give great hopes of a speedy deliverance from the Ottoman power. On the 18th of April, this year, Lord Byron died at Missalonghi, of an inflammatory fever, after having zealously devoted himself to the cause of the Greeks from the time he first landed, in August, 1823, up to the period of his death. His exertions had been great and unremitting, but he never seems to have been free from apprehension lest the jealousies and divisions among the Greek leaders should ultimately prove destructive to all their patriotic efforts.

Taking advantage of an insurrection that broke out on the Morea, at the head of which were Colocotroni and his sons, the troops of Mahomet Ali, pacha of Egypt, were directed to land in great force there; and it now became evident that the neighbourhood of Navarino was destined to be the seat of war. On the 1st of May the Egyptian fleet, from sixty-five to seventy sail, left the port of Suda, where it had been watched by a Greek squadron under Miaoulis, who now sailed to Navarino. On the 8th, Miaoulis' squadron, amounting to twenty-two vessels, was near Zante; the Egyptian fleet, forty-six in number, being off Sphacteria. In

about an hour from two thousand to three thousand troops effected a debarkation from the Egyptian fleet, on the island. The garrison of old Navarino capitulated on the tenth, and the garrison of Navarino on the twenty-third. After the surrender of Sphacteria, a great part of the Egyptian fleet was followed by Miaoulis into the harbour of Modon, and more than half of it destroyed by fire-ships. In the end of May the Turkish admiral left the Dardanelles, and on the first of June was encountered by the Hydriote Sakhturi, who, by means of his fire-ships, destroyed three men of war and some transports. Soon after the capitan pacha entered Suda, and joined the Egyptian fleet from Navarino. The Greek fleet was dispersed by a tempest, and having no fire-ships, they retired to Hydra, while the Turkish admiral landed a reinforcement of five thousand men at Navarino, and went to Missolonghi with seven frigates and many smaller vessels. The siege was now vigorously pressed; the lagune was penetrated on the 21st of July, and Anatolica, an island on the north, surrendered to the Turks. The supply of water was now cut off, batteries had been erected near the main works of the place, the ramparts had been injured, and part of the ditches filled up; at length a general attack was ordered on the 1st of August, and the town assailed in four places at once. On the 3rd the Greek fleet, consisting of twenty-five brigs, attacked and destroyed two small ships of war and all the boats in the lagune, relieved Missolonghi, and obliged the enemy's fleet to retire. On the 10th the Greeks attempted, but without success, to burn the Turkish fleet in the harbour of Alexandria. On the 20th the fleet of the Greeks, about thirty sail, commanded by Miaoulis, engaged the Turks between Zante, Cephalonia, and Chiarenza, and an action ensued, which lasted with little intermission for two days and nights, till at length the Greeks were obliged to retire. On the 29th another naval action took place, and skirmishes on the two next days, when the Greeks forced the enemy to take shelter in the gulf.

Nothing of importance happened during the year 1826 to give the Greeks encouragement. After a lengthened blockade of Missolonghi, in which every effort was made by the Greeks to defend it, that important fortress was taken by assault and sacked. Nor were the events of the early part of 1827 such as to hold out hopes of a successful issue of this prolonged and barbarous contest. Athens was taken in May by the Turks under Kiutaki, not long after the arrival of the gallant lord Cochrane in its neighbourhood, with a considerable naval force. The loss of the Greeks on this occasion amounted to seven hundred men killed, and two hundred and forty taken prisoners, including eighteen Philhellenians of different countries. Kiutaki, supposing that Lord Cochrane and General Church were among the Europeans, had the prisoners brought before him, and, after examing them carefully, caused the eighteen Europeans to be poniarded before his eyes, and ordered the two hundred and twenty-two Greeks to be massacred. The interference of the great European powers could no longer well be deferred; and an important treaty between Great Britain, France, and Russia was concluded, expressly with a view to put an end to this horrid warfare, and, under certain tributary stipulations, to establish the independence of Greece. The ambassadors of the three powers, on the 16th of August, presented the said treaty to the Porte, and waited for an answer till the 31st. Meanwhile the Greek government proclaimed an armistice in conformity with the treaty of London; but the reis effendi rejected the intervention of the three powers. The Greeks then commenced hostilities anew, and on the 9th of September the Turkish-Egyptian fleet entered the bay of Navarino. A British squadron appeared in the bay on the 13th, under Admiral Codrington. To this a French squadron, under Admiral Rigny, and a Russian, under Count Heyden, united themselves on the 22nd. They demanded from Ibrahim Pa-

cha a cessation of hostilities; this he promised, and went out with a part of his fleet, but was forced to return into the bay. He, however, continued the devastations in the Morea, and gave no answer to the complaints of the admirals.

The combined squadrons of England, France, and Russia now entered the bay, where the Turkish-Egyptian fleet was drawn up in order of battle. The first shots were fired from the Turkish side, and killed two Englishmen. This was the signal for a deadly contest, in which Codrington nearly destroyed the Turkish-Egyptian armada of one hundred and ten ships. Some were burned, others driven on shore, and the rest disabled. Enraged at the battle of Navarino, the Porte seized all the ships of the Franks in Constantinople, detained them for some time, and stopped all communication with the allied powers, till indemnification should be made for the destruction of the fleet. At the same time it prepared for war; and the several ambassadors left Constantinople. Upon this the Porte affected to adopt conciliatory measures; but it was evident they were insincere; for from all parts of the kingdom the ayans were now called to Constantinople, and discussed with the Porte the preparations for war; and all the Moslems, from the age of nineteen to fifty, were called on to arm. In the meantime, the president of the Greeks, Capo d'Istrias, established a high national council at Napoli di Romania: took measures for instituting a national bank; and put the military on a new footing. The attempts at pacification were fruitless, because the Porte rejected every proposal, and in Britain the battle of Navarino was looked on as an "untoward event." In this state of indecision and uncertainty, Ibraham took the opportunity of sending a number of Greek captives as slaves to Egypt. In the meantime, the French cabinet, in concurrence with the British, to carry into execution the treaty of London, sent a body of troops to the Morea, while Admiral Codrington concluded a treaty with the viceroy of Egypt, at Alexandria (August 6), the terms of which were that Ibrahim Pacha should evacuate the Morea with his troops, and set at liberty his Greek prisoners. Those Greeks who had been carried into slavery in Egypt, were to be freed or ransomed: one thousand two hundred men, however, were to be allowed to remain to garrison the fortresses in the Morea. To force Ibrahim to comply with these terms, the French general Maison arrived, on the 29th of the following August, with one hundred and fifty-four transport ships in the bay of Coron. After an amicable negotiation, Ibrahim left Navarino, and sailed (October 4) with about twenty-one thousand men, whom he carried with the wreck of the fleet to Alexandria; but he left garrisons in the Messenian fortresses, amounting to twenty-five thousand men. Maison occupied the town of Navarino without opposition; and after a mere show of resistance on the part of those who held the citadels of Modon, Coron, and Patras, the flags of the allied powers floated on their walls.

Nothing hostile was undertaken against the Turks by the French out of the Morea, because the sultan would in that case have declared war against France; and Britain and France carefully avoided such a result, that they might be able to mediate between the Porte and Russia. To defend the Morea, however, from new invasions from the Turks, the three powers agreed to send a manifesto to the Porte to this effect: "That they should place the Morea and the Cyclades under their protection till the time when a definite arrangement should decide the fate of the provinces which the allies had taken possession of, and that they should consider the entrance of any military force into this country as an attack upon themselves. They required the Porte to come to an explanation with them concerning the final pacification of Greece."

The Greeks, in the meantime, continued hostilities; and the Turks relaxed not in retaliating with bitter vengeance on all who came within their

power; nor would Mahmoud recall the edict of extermination which he had pronounced when he commanded Dram Ali, a few years before, to bring him the ashes of Peloponnesus. Ibrahim had wantonly burned down the olive groves as far as his Arabians spread, and the Greeks were sunk in the deepest misery.

It must not be supposed that the allied powers were wholly unmindful of the great object they had undertaken; but many serious obstacles tending to delay its accomplishment presented themselves at every step of the negotiation. The basis of a settlement was, however, at length agreed upon, the principal points of which may be thus briefly stated:—The Greeks, to pay to the Porte an annual tribute; a joint commission of Turks and Greeks to determine the indemnification of the Turks for the loss of property in Greece; Greece to enjoy a qualified independence, under the sovereignty of the Porte; the government to be under an hereditary Christian prince, not of the family of either of the allied sovereigns; at every succession of the hereditary prince, an additional year's tribute to be paid; mutual amnesty to be required; and all Greeks to be allowed a year to sell their property and leave the Turkish territories.

The situation of Capo d'Istrias, the president, was all this time most embarrassing. He was without means, in a land torn by discord; yet his attention had been zealously directed towards the maintenance of order, the suppression of piracy, and the formation of a regular army; the establishment of courts of justice, and schools of mutual instruction; of means for collecting the revenue, and providing for the subsistence of the wretched remnants of the population. He called together the fourth national assembly, at Argos, and in a long address (July 23, 1829), gave an account of the state of the country and of his measures, particularly directing the attention of the assembly to the organization of the forces and the revenue.

The conferences between the ministers of the three powers, at London, had now for their object to select a prince to wear the crown of Greece. It was first offered to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, February 3, 1830, and was accepted by him, as "sovereign prince of Greece," on the 20th. On further consideration, however, he resigned the honour; alledging as his reasons—the unwillingness of the Greeks to receive him, and their dissatisfaction at the settlement of the boundaries. He further observed, that the answer of the president of Greece to his appointment, in his judgment, announced a forced submission to the allied powers, and even that forced submission was accompanied by reservations of the highest importance. Much dissatisfaction was shown in England, and various motives were assigned to the prince for his refusal; but it is perhaps unnecessary to seek for any other motive than that which would force itself on the notice of any man of correct feelings and good taste, namely, the irksomeness of filling a regal station, with the consciousness that his unwilling subjects regarded him as an intruder and a tyrant. After the resignation of Leopold, several princes were proposed as candidates for the throne; and at length Otho, a younger son of the king of Bavaria, accepted the trust, and was proclaimed at Nauplia, August 30, 1832. During the discontents and jealousies of the previous year, Count Capo d'Istria, the president, was assassinated.

Such havoc had the ravages of war made in Greece, and so necessary was repose to all classes of its inhabitants, that the first years of Otho's reign passed away in a comparatively tranquil manner; although the sullen murmur of discontent was occasionally heard as, one by one, the several state appointments were filled by the king's German friends, to the exclusion of natives. At length, in September, 1843, the people, urged by distress and dissatisfaction, rose against the constituted authorities of the kingdom, and accomplished a revolution without bloodshed or vio-

lence—without endangering the personal safety, or inflicting any humiliation on the king. The ministers were arrested at their houses, but were liberated in a few hours. The populace assembled in front of the palace, and demanded a constitution. The king assured the people that he would consider their demand, and that of the army, after consulting with his ministers, the state council, and foreign ambassadors, but was informed that the ministers were no longer recognized, and that the council of state were then deliberating on the best course to pursue. An address from this body was subsequently presented to the king, in which the instant dismissal of the Bavarian ministers was insisted on, and a list of those chosen to succeed them in office was presented. Wisely foreseeing the result of resisting demands, which were founded in justice and reason, his majesty with a good grace acceded to them, and the affair terminated apparently to the satisfaction of all parties. It is, however, too important a catastrophe in the history of Greece to be dismissed with so slight a notice; we shall therefore avail ourselves of the following extract from an account of this bloodless revolution, as given in a Greek paper of the 15th of September, 1843:—

"A wise revolution, accomplished in one day, amid the most perfect order, without a single offensive cry being uttered, even against the Bavarians, has renewed the claims of Greece to the esteem and sympathy of nations and their governments. Every body knows the unfortunate situation in which Greece was placed. The Greeks had exhausted every means in their power to induce the government to adopt a truly national policy. The parliaments of France and England, and the London conference, had vainly acknowledged the many grievances of the Greek people; the government obstinately persevered in its evil course. The nation had no other alternative but to plunge itself into the abyss opened by ten years' mistakes and incapacity, or to extricate itself therefrom by a dangerous but inevitable effort. For some time the movement was in progress of preparation on different points of the country, that it might be effected without any disorder. The hostile attitude assumed by the government against those who sought to enlighten it, the extraordinary dispositions adopted within the last few days, with a view to assail the liberty, and the very lives of the citizens (a military tribune had been established) most devoted to the national interests, necessarily tended to hasten the manifestation of the contemplated movement.

"Last night, at two o'clock, A. M., a few musket shots, fired in the air, announced the assembling of the people in different quarters of Athens. Soon after, the inhabitants, accompanied by the entire garrison, marched toward the square of the palace, crying, 'The constitution for ever!' On reaching the place, the entire garrison, the artillery, cavalry, and infantry, drew up under the windows of the king, in front of the palace, and the people, having stationed themselves in the rear, all in one voice demanded a constitution. The king appeared at a low window, and assured the people that he would take into consideration their demand and that of the army, after consulting with his ministers, the council of state, and the representatives of the foreign powers. But the commander, M. Calegri, having stepped forward, made known to his majesty that the ministry was no longer recognized, and that the council of state was already deliberating on the best course to be adopted under existing circumstances. A deputation of the council shortly after waited on the king with the documents that had been prepared for his perusal. The new ministry soon afterward repaired to the palace, where they held a long consultation with his majesty, who shortly appeared in the balcony, surrounded by his ministers and other personages, and was received with acclamations by the people. The cry of 'Long live the constitutional king,' resounded together with

that of the 'constitution for ever.' The new ministers entered immediately on the discharge of their functions."

It may be well to close the present historic sketch with a few remarks on Greece in its past and present state. The government of the different states of ancient Greece was purely monarchical; it subsequently varied from a mixed monarchy, as in Sparta, to a democracy, as at Athens. In most states there was a continued struggle between an oligarchical and popular faction: and, as one or other prevailed, their adversaries were exiled, or unrelentingly put to death. In their cultivation of literature and the arts, they surpassed all nations. The poems of Homer are still unrivalled; and Hesiod and others, maintained the reputation which their great poet had won. Dramatic composition was invented by Thespis, and brought to perfection by Æschines, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes. History was cultivated with success by Herodotus, Thucydides, and Xenophon; subsequently by Polybius, Diodorus, Siculus, Arrian, and Plutarch. In oratory also the Greeks excelled: there is, indeed, no name in history more honoured for commanding eloquence than that of Demosthenes. Philosophy was also prosecuted at a very early date, and there were several eminent teachers cotemporary with Solon. Pythagoras, who taught the doctrine of metempsychosis, came next; but it flourished most after the time of Socrates, B. C. 400, who introduced a pure system of morality, with a correct mode of reasoning, into Greece. Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, who were termed academics, succeeded him; and other schools were also set up; as the skeptics, by Pyrrho; the stoics, by Zeno; the cynics, by Aristippus; and the epicureans, by Epicurus: the object of all these schools being to discover what was the chief aim of human existence. The mathematical sciences were also objects of early attention in Greece; and were pursued by many of their teachers, in conjunction with those which were purely philosophical. In painting, sculpture, and architecture, also, the Greeks gave proof of the highest excellence; the finest statues in the world are of Greek execution; and the styles of architecture, distinguished as Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian, are those to which we are indebted for our most splendid public edifices. With some few exceptions the Greeks were a people of lively temperaments, fertile imagination, social habits, and elegant taste: but they were fickle and vindictive, caring little for principle, and even inculcating a crafty and overreaching policy. They ever showed an extreme proneness to civil discord, and through their own dissensions and treachery they first fell a prey to Macedon, and afterward to Rome.

The modern Greeks are thus described:—"There is a pretty marked distinction among the inhabitants of the three great divisions of Greece—Greece north of the Isthmus, the Peloponnesus, and the islands. The inhabitants of northern Greece have retained a chivalrous and warlike spirit, with a simplicity of manners and mode of life which strongly remind us of the pictures of the heroic age. The soil here is generally cultivated by Bulgarians, Albanians, and Wallachians. In eastern Greece, Parnassus, with its ancient bulwarks, is the only place where the Hellenic race has maintained itself; in the mountainous parts of western Greece there are also some remnants of the Hellenic stock. In these parts the language is spoken with more purity than elsewhere. The population of the Peloponnesus consists nearly of the same races as that of northern Greece, but the Peloponnesians are more ignorant and less honest than the inhabitants of Hellas. The Albanians occupy Argolia and a part of the ancient Triphylia. Among the rest of the inhabitants, who all speak Greek, there are considerable social differences. The population of the towns is of a mixed character, as in northern Greece, where there is an active and intelligent body of proprietors, merchants, and artisans in the towns, and among them some of Greek stock. The Maniotes form a separate class

of the population: they are generally called Maniotes from the name of one of their districts; but their true name, which they have never lost, is Spartans. They occupy the lofty and sterile mountains between the gulfs of Laconia and Messenia, the representatives of a race driven from the sunny valley of the Eurotas to the bleak and inhospitable tracts of Taygetos, though the plains which are spread out below them are no longer held by a conqueror, and the fertile lands lie uncultivated for the want of labourers. In the islands, there is a singular mixture of Albanians and Greeks. The Albanians of Hydra and Spozzia have long been known as active traders and excellent mariners. The Hydriotes made great sacrifices for the cause of independence in the late war; the Spezziotes, more prudent and calculating, increased their wealth and their merchant navy. The island of Syra, which has long been the centre of an active commerce, now contains the remnant of the population of Ipsara and Chios. The Ipsariots are an active and handsome race, and skilful seamen; the Chiots, following the habits of their ancestors, are fond of staying at home and attending to their shops and mercantile speculations; they amass wealth, but they employ it in founding establishments of public utility, and in the education of their children. In Tinos, the peasants, who are also the proprietors, cultivate the vine and the fig even amid the most barren rocks; in Syra, Santorin, and at Naxos, they are the tenants of a miserable race of nobility, whose origin is traced to the time of the crusades, and who still retain the Latin creed of their ancestors. Besides these, there are various bodies of Suliotes, of people from the heights of Olympus, Candiotes, many Greek families from Asia Minor, Fanariotes, and others, who have emigrated, or been driven by circumstances, within the limits of the new kingdom. The Ipsariots are those who are supposed to have the least intermixture of foreign blood. They have the fine and characteristic Greek physiognomy, as preserved in the marbles of Phidias and other ancient sculptors; they are ingenious, loquacious, lively to excess, active, enterprising, vapouring, and disputatious. The modern Greeks are generally rather above the middle height, and well shaped; they have the face oval, features regular and expressive, eyes large, dark, and animated, eyebrows arched, hair long and dark, and complexions olive-coloured."

THE HISTORY
OF THE
OTTOMAN OR TURKISH EMPIRE.

The Turks are of Tartarian or Scythian extraction; and this appellation was first given them in the middle ages as a proper name; it being a general title of honour to all the nations comprehended under the two principal branches of Tartar and Mongol, who therefore never use it as a proper name of any particular nation. The Scythian, or Tartarian nation, to which the name of Turks has been peculiarly given, dwelt betwixt the Black and Caspian seas, and became first known in the seventh century, when Heraclius, emperor of the East, took them into his service; in which they so distinguished themselves, by their fidelity and bravery in

the conquest of Persia, that the Arabian and Saracen caliphs had not only select bodies of them for guards, but their armies were composed of them. Thus gradually getting the power into their hands, they set up or dethroned caliphs at pleasure. By this strict union of the Turks with the Saracens or Arabs, the former were brought to embrace the Mahometan religion, so that they are now become intermixed, and have jointly enlarged their conquests; but as the Turks became superior to the Saracens, they subdued them.

The following account has been given of the origin of the Ottoman empire. Genghis-khan at the head of his horse, issued out of Great Tartary and made himself master of a vast tract of land near the Caspian Sea, and even of all Persia and Asia Minor. Incited by his example and success, Shah Solyman, prince of the town of Nera, on the Caspian Sea, in the year 1214, passed Mount Caucasus with fifty thousand men, and penetrated as far as the borders of Syria; and though his career was stopped there by Genghis-khan, yet in the year 1219 he penetrated a second time into Asia Minor, as far as the Euphrates. Othman, his grandson, made himself master of several countries and places in Lesser Asia, belonging to the Grecian empire; and having, in the year 1300, at the city of Carachifer, assumed the title of emperor of the Othmans, called his people after his own name. This prince, among many other towns, took, in the year 1326, Prusa, in Bithynia, now called Bursa, which Orchan, his son and successor, made the seat of his empire. Orchan sent Solyman and Amurath, his two sons, on an expedition into Europe; the former of whom reduced the city of Callipolis, and the latter took Tyrilos. Amurath succeeded his father in the government, in 1360; took Ancyra, Adrianople, and Philipopolis; and, in 1362, overran Servia, and invaded Macedonia and Albania.

Bajazet, his son and successor, was very successful both in Europe and Asia, defeating the Christians near Nicopolis; but, in 1401, he was routed and taken prisoner by Tamerlane. His sons disagreed; but Mahomet I. enjoyed the sovereignty, and his son Amurath II. distinguished himself by several important enterprises, and particularly in the year 1444 gained a signal victory over the Hungarians near Varna. The Byzantine empire was already cut off from the west, when Mahomet II., the son of Amurath and his successor, at the age of twenty-six, completed the work of conquest. It is said, that the reading of ancient historians had inspired him with the ambition of equalling Alexander. He soon attacked Constantinople, which was taken May 29, 1453; aud the last Paleologus, Constantine XI., buried himself under the ruins of his throne.

Mahomet now built the castle of the Dardanelles, and organized the government of the empire, taking for his model Nushirvan's organization of the Persian empire. In 1456, he subdued the Morea, and in 1461, led Comnenus, emperor of Trebizond, prisoner to Constantinople. Pius II. called in vain upon the nations of Christendom to take up arms.

Mahomet conquered the remainder of Bosnia in 1470, and Epirus in 1465, after the death of Scanderbeg. He took Negropont and Lemnos from the Venetians, Caffa from the Genoese, and, in 1473, obliged the khan of the Crim Tartars, of the family of Genghis-khan, to do him homage. In 1480, he had already conquered Otranto, in the kingdom of Naples, when he died, in the midst of great projects against Rome and Persia. His grandson, Selim I., who had dethroned and murdered his father, drove back the Persian power to the Euphrates and the Tigris. He defeated the Mamelukes, and conquered, in 1517, Egypt, Syria, and Palestine. During fifty years, the arms of the Ottomans, by sea and by land, were the terror of Europe and of Asia, especially under Solyman II. the Magnificent, also called the Lawgiver, who reigned between 1519 and 1566. In 1522, he took Rhodes from the knights of St. John, and, by

the victory of Mohaez, in 1526, subdued half of Hungary. He exacted a tribute from Moldavia, and was successful against the Persians in Asia, so as to make Bagdad, Mesopotamia, and Georgia subject to him. He was already threatening to overrun Germany, and to plant the standard of Mahomet in the west, when he was checked before the walls of Vienna, in 1529. But as Hungary had placed its king, John Zapolya, under the powerful protection of the padishah, and the successful corsair Barbarossa was master of the Mediterranean, had conquered Northern Africa, and laid waste Minorca, Sicily, Apulia, and Corfu, the sultan Solyman might have conquered Europe, had he known how to give firmness and consistency to his plans. He was resisted at sea by the Venetians, and the Genoese Andrew Doria, by the grand-master Lavalette in Malta, and by Zriny, under the walls of Zigeth.

Twelve sultans, all of them brave and warlike, and most of them continually victorious, had now, during a period of two centuries and a half, raised the power of the crescent; but the internal strength of the state was yet undevelped. Solyman, indeed, by his laws, completed the organization begun by Mohammed II., and in 1538 united the priestly dignity of the caliphate to the Ottoman porte; but he could not incorporate into a whole the conquered nations. He also imprisoned his successor in the seraglio.

From this time, the race of Osman degenerated, and the power of the porte declined. From Solyman's death, in 1556, to our own time, most of the Ottoman sovereigns have ascended the throne from a prison, and lived in the seraglio until, as it not unfrequently happened, they again exchanged a throne for a prison. Several grand viziers have, at different periods, alone upheld the fallen state, while the nation continued to sink deeper into the grossest ignorance and slavery; and pachas, more rapacious and more arbitrary than the sultan and his divan, ruled in the provinces. In its foreign relations, the porte was the sport of European politicians, and more than once was embroiled by the cabinet of Versailles in a war with Austria and Russia. While all Europe was making progress in the arts of peace and of war, the Ottoman nation and government remained inactive and stationary. Blindly attached to their doctrines of absolute fate, and elated by their former military glory, the Turks looked upon foreigners with contempt, as infidels. Without any settled plan, but incited by hatred and a thirst for conquest, they carried on the war with Persia, Venice, Hungary, and Poland. The revolts of the janizaries and of the governors became dangerous. The suspicions of the despot, however, were generally quieted with the dagger and the bowstring; and the ablest men of the divan were sacrificed to the hatred of the soldiery and of the ulema. The successor to the throne frequently put to death all his brothers; and the people looked with indifference upon the murder of a hated sultan, or the deposition of a weak one.

Mustapha I. was twice dethroned; Osman II. and Ibrahim were strangled, the former in 1622, the latter in 1648. Selim II., indeed, conquered Cyprus in 1571, but in the same year, Don John of Austria defeated the Turkish fleet at Lepanto. A century after, under Mahomet IV., in 1669, Candia was taken, after a resistance of thirteen years; and the vizier Kara Mustapha gave to the Hungarians, who had been oppressed by Austria, their general, Count Tekeli, for a king, in 1682; but, the very next year, he was driven back from Vienna, which he had besieged, and, after the defeat at Mohaez, in 1687, the Ottomans lost most of the strong places in Hungary. The exasperated people threw their sultan into prison; but, in a short time, the grand vizier, Kiuprili Mustapha, restored order and courage, and recalled victory to the Turkish banners; but he was slain in the battle against the Germans near Salankemen, in 1691. At last, the sultan Mustapha II. himself took the field; but he was opposed

by the hero Eugene, the conqueror at Zentha, in 1697; and, on the Don, Peter the Great conquered Azoph. He was obliged, therefore, by the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, to renounce his claims upon Transylvania and the country between the Danube and the Theias, to give up the Morea to the Venetians, to restore Podolia and the Ukraine to Poland, and to leave Azoph to the Russians.

Thus commenced the fall of the Ottoman power. A revolt of the janizaries, who, abandoning their ancient rigid discipline, wished to carry on commerce, and live in houses, obliged the sultan to abdicate. His successor, the imbecile and voluptuous Achmet III., saw with indifference the troubles in Hungary, the war of the Spanish succession, and the great northern war. Charles XII., whom he protected after his defeat at Pultowa, finally succeeded in involving him in a war with Peter; but the czar, although surrounded with his whole army, easily obtained the peace of the Pruth, by the surrender of Azoph, in 1711. In 1715, the grand vizier attacked Venice, and took the Morea; but Austria assisted the republic, and Eugene's victories at Peterwardein and Belgrade in 1717, obliged the porte to give up, by the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, Temeswar, Belgrade, with a part of Servia and Wallachia, but still it retained the Morea. Equally unsuccessful were Achmet's arms in Persia; in consequence of which an insurrection broke out, and he was thrown into prison in 1730. In 1736, the Russian general Münmich humbled the pride of the Ottomans; but Austria, the ally of Russia, was not successful, and the French ambassador in Constantinople effected the treaty of Belgrade, by which the porte regained Belgrade, with Servia and Wallachia.

Catherine, empress of Russia, soon after her elevation, began to make it a favourite object in her plan of politics to gain a dictatorial ascendency over the king and diet of Poland. This she effected partly by the intrigues and persuasive bribes of her minister at the court of Warsaw, and partly by marching a powerful army into that kingdom: but as soon as this hostile step was taken, the porte took the alarm, and stimulated by jealousy of its northern rival, resolved to support the liberties and independence of the Poles. These resolutions being formed in the divan of Constantinople, M. Obreskow, the Russian resident there, was, according to the constant practice of the Turks on such occasions, committed a prisoner to the castle of the Seven Towers, (October 5, 1768.) War was declared against the empress of Russia, and the most vigorous preparations were made to collect the whole force of the empire. The court of Russia was far from seeking a rupture with the porte, being fully employed in important objects nearer home; but being unable to prevent a war, two armies, amounting together to one hundred and fifty thousand men, were formed, at the head of the largest of which Prince Gallitzin crossed the Dniester, and entered Moldavia, with a view of becoming master of Choczin; but the prudent measures taken by the Turkish vizier frustrated all his attempts, and obliged him to repass the river. The impatience of the Turks to pursue these advantages, and to transfer the seat of war into Podolia, excited a general disgust at the cautious and circumspect conduct of their leader; in consequence of which he was removed, and Maldovani Ali Pacha, a man precipitate and incautious, appointed in his stead; who, by repeated attempts to cross the Dneister in sight of the Russian army, lost in the short space of a fortnight twenty-four thousand of his best troops; which spread such general discontent through the army, that, renouncing all subordination, the troops retreated tumultuously towards the Danube, and no less than forty thousand men are said to have abandoned the standard of Mahomet in this precipitate flight. The Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia were overrun by the Russians, and most of the places of strength became easy preys to the

conqueror. The campaign which opened so auspiciously for the Ottomans, by the rashness and folly of their general ended in their disgrace and ruin. The vizier was degraded and banished.

The czarina, who almost from the commencement of her reign had endeavoured to establish an efficient naval force, which, under the superintendence of Sir Charles Knowles, had been successfully effected, now caused a large fleet of Russian men-of-war, commanded by Count Orlow, to proceed from the Baltic to the Mediterranean, to annoy the Turks on their extensive coasts in the Levant. The unskilfulness of the Russians in maritime affairs greatly retarded the progress of their fleet; and it was not until the spring of 1770, that it arrived at the scene of action, although many experienced British officers were volunteers in the expedition. The Turks, to whom the sea has ever proved a fatal element, for some time had no force capable of opposing the enemy, so that the Morea was exposed to their ravages, and several places of strength were taken; the Greek inhabitants everywhere joyfully received the invaders; but at length an army of Albanians being collected, they drove the Russians to their ships, and having recovered the whole country, chastised the revolt of its inhabitants by the lawless vengeance of a licentious soldiery. The Russians, now driven from the Morea, had advanced in full force into the Egean sea, and, passing the straits which divide the island of Scio from the coast of Natolia, were met by a Turkish fleet of superior force. A furious engagement ensued on the 5th of July, in which the Russian admiral Spiritof encountered the capitan pacha, in the Sultana of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm. The two ships running close together, grappled each other. The Russians, by throwing hand grenades, set the enemy's ship on fire, which rapidly spread, and soon reached the Russian ship. This dreadful spectacle suspended the action between the two fleets, until both ships blew up. Only twenty-four Russians were saved, among whom were the admiral, his son, and Count Theodore Orlow; the ship carried ninety brass guns, and had on board a chest containing 500,000 rubles (£112,500 sterling.)

Although each fleet was equally affected by this event, yet it infused a panic among the Turks, which the Russians did not partake of. During the remainder of the day the Turks maintained the action; but on the approach of night, the capitan pacha, contrary to the advice of his officers, gave orders for each ship to cut its cables, and run into a bay on the coast of Natolia, near a small town anciently called Cyssus, but now known by the name of Chisme. Hossein Bey, who had raised himself by his talents for war to be second in command, saved his ship by bravely forcing his way through the enemy's fleet. Here the Russian fleet soon after blocked them up, and began a furious cannonade; which being found ineffectual, a fire-ship was sent in at midnight, on the 7th of July, which, by the intrepid behaviour of Lieutenant Dugdale, grappled a Turkish man-of-war, and the wind at that moment being very high, the whole Ottoman fleet was consumed, except one man-of-war and a few galleys which were towed off by the Russians. The Russians next morning entered the harbour and bombarded the town and a castle that protected it; and a shot happening to blow up the magazine, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus, through the fatal misconduct of a commander, there was scarce a vestige left, in a few hours, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had all been in existence the day before. It was somewhat remarkable, that this place was rendered famous by a great victory which the Romans gained there over the fleet of Antiochus, in the year before Christ 191.

The Turkish fleet consisted of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of xebecs and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail. The Russians had only ten ships of the line,

and five frigates. The Turkish fleet being annihilated, it might have been expected that the Russian admiral would have shaken the Ottoman empire to its very foundations: that it would have put it to the proof how far the Dardanelles were effectual for the defence of the Hellespont. Had he proved successful against those celebrated barriers, Constantinople itself, the seat of the empire, must have fallen into his hands. It seems evident the views of Russia did not extend to the effecting such a purpose; her fleet, during the remainder of the war, was only employed in making descents on the Turkish islands, and with little or no success. In that space of time the great Russian army having passed the Danube, found its progress in Bulgaria stopped by the range of mountains which intersects that country, whilst it was continually harassed by detachments from the Turkish camp. The expenses of the war were severely felt by each empire, and although that of Russia had gained the ascendancy, no beneficial consequences had been realized. In this state of affairs, the grand seignor Mustapha III., emperor of the Turks, died January 21, 1774, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and seventeenth of his reign; he appointed his brother Abdulhamet to succeed him in the throne. The war was continued with spirit; but a large Turkish army, commanded by the reis effendi, being most disgracefully defeated by General Kamenski, the porte, no longer able to maintain the war, was compelled to receive terms from the conqueror. A peace was signed on the 21st of July, 1774, at Kainardgiac, to ratify which the mufti issued his fetfa, or ordinance, in which, to the great degradation of the Ottoman pride, it was said, that, "seeing our troops will no longer fight the Russians, it is necessary to conclude a peace."

The treaty of peace consisted of twenty-eight articles, by which, among other advantages, the Russians obtained a free navigation in all the Turkish seas, together with the passage through the Dardanelles. Russian consuls were likewise to reside in the Turkish sea-ports. Although peace was upon these conditions restored, yet it soon became apparent that the latent ambition of Catharine caused her to meditate the utter subversion of the Turkish empire, and to indulge in the hope that she herself should effect it. To bring forward this grand design she made a progress from Moscow to the Crimea, with all the pageantry of imperial state. Whilst on this journey she received a visit from the emperor of Germany, Joseph II., and, as the visits of potentates are generally fatal to the peace of the world, there was good ground to suppose that this was portentous to the Ottoman empire, and had for its chief objects to settle the mode of attacking it, and how it should be divided when conquered. The porte took the alarm, and, determined not to wait the maturation of its enemy's councils and force, published a manifesto, dated the 7th of August, 1787, and commenced hostilities against the empress of Russia. The emperor of Germany, soon after, led a formidable army against the Turkish fastnesses on the frontiers of Hungary, not doubting but that everything would fall before him with the rapidity which Cæsar exulted in; but his progress was opposed, and his measures frustrated by the surprising valour and conduct of the Turks. The war with Russia was chiefly maritime, and the seat of it the Black sea; but here neither success nor glory accrued to the Turkish arms. The Russians became masters of Ocsakow, and in every conflict at sea were decisively superior.

This unequal war was not looked upon with indifference by some other of the great powers of Europe. The subjugation of the Turkish empire, and the vast increase of power which Russia would acquire by possessing the most valuable, because the most commercial parts of it, were considered as revolutions in which the other powers of Europe were deeply interested. In consequence of which a close alliance was formed between Great Bri-

tain and Prussia, having for its chief object, the rescuing the Turks from that destruction which hung over them, by restoring peace to that part of Europe. The losses and disgraces which the emperor sustained, and the death of Laudohn, the only general who had effected anything, rendered that prince anxious to terminate the war; and the empress of Russia, through the mediation of the British court, at length acceded to terms of peace, by the conditions of which very important towns and districts were added to her dominions; which, however, her arms had previously obtained.

Bonaparte's campaign in Egypt finally raised the indignation of the porte, which, on the 1st of September, 1798, declared war for the first time against France. By its alliance with Russia, in December, 1798, and with England and Naples, in January, 1799, it now fell under the direction of the cabinets of St. Petersburg and St. James. A Russian fleet sailed through the Dardanelles, and a Turkish squadron, in co-operation with it, conquered the Ionian islands. Paul I. and Selim III., by a treaty at Constantinope, formed the republic of the Seven Islands, which, as well as Ragusa, was to be under the protection of the porte. In the following year, Britain restored Egypt to the porte; but the Mameluke beys and the Arnaouts filled the land with tumult and bloodshed, until, on the 1st of March, 1811, the new governor, Mehemed Ali Pacha, entirely exterminated the Mamelukes by treachery. Since then he has ruled over Egypt almost independently.

The union with the European powers had, however, made Selim and some of the chiefs of the empire sensible that, if the porte would maintain its power, it must introduce into its armies the modern tactics, and give to the divan a form more suited to the times. The Nizan Dshedid laboured, therefore, to form a Turkish army on the European model, which should supersede the janizaries. But after the peace with France, in 1801, there was in the divan two parties, a Russian and British, and a French. The superiority of Russia pressed upon the porte in the Ionian islands and in Servia; it was accordingly inclined to favour France. When, therefore, Russia, in 1806, occupied Moldavia and Wallachia, the old hostility broke out anew, and (December 30th, 1806) the porte, at the instigation of France, declared war against Russia, which was already engaged with Persia and France. The weakness of the Ottoman empire was now evident. An English fleet forced the passage of the Dardanelles, and, on the 20th of February, 1807, appeared before Constantinople; but the French general Sebastiani directed, with success, the resistance of the divan and of the enraged people. On the other hand, the Russians made rapid advances. The people murmured; and Selim III., on the 29th of May, 1807, was deposed by the mufti, and Mustapha IV. was obliged to put a stop to the hated innovations. But, after the Turkish fleet had been entirely beaten by the Russians at Lemnos, Selim's friend, Mustapha Bairaktar, the brave pacha of Ruschuk, took advantage of the terror of the capital, to seize it. But the unhappy Selim lost his life; and Bairaktar, in the place of the deposed Mustapha IV., raised to the throne the sultan Mahmoud II. As grand vizier of Mahmoud, he restored the new military system, and concluded a truce with Russia; but the fury of the janizaries again broke out, and destroyed him in the latter end of 1808.

Mahmoud now alone supported the throne: for he was, since the death of Mustapha IV., the only prince of the family of Osman, and he soon displayed an extraordinary degree of courage and prudence. One of his first acts was to conclude peace with Great Britain, in 1809; he then continued, with redoubled vigour, the war against the Russians, who already threatened the passage of the Balkan. Twice the Russians were obliged to retreat beyond the Danube; nevertheless, their policy conquered the

French party in the divan. In vain did the French emperor, in his treaty with Austria, March 14, 1812, declare he would maintain the integrity of the Turkish territory. Notwithstanding this, before the French army had passed the Niemen, the sultan bought peace with Russia, at Bucharest, by ceding that part of Moldavia and Bessarabia which lies beyond the Pruth, with the northern fortresses on the Dniester and at the mouths of the Danube, and the southern gates of the Caucasus on the Kur.

The Servians, left to themselves, again became subjected to Turkey. They retained, however, by their treaty with the porte, in November, 1815, the administration of the government. In 1817, Mahmoud was obliged to give up the principal mouth of the Danube to Russia. But the Greek insurrection again disturbed the relations of the two powers, and has produced important changes in the situation of the porte. The porte believed that Russia secretly favoured the insurrection, and therefore seized Moldavia and Wallachia, and restricted its marine commerce. Both were open violations of the peace of Bucharest. After an interchange of notes, the Russian ambassador left Constantinople. The mediation of the English and Austrian courts, together with the emperor Alexander's desire for peace, prevented the outbreak of a war; but the divan, under various pretexts, refused all satisfaction to the Russian cabinet, until, at last, the emperor Nicholas declared the Russian ultimatum; upon which the porte, in 1826, granted all the demands of the Russian court, and promised that in Moldavia and Wallachia (where, in three years, it had raised 37,000,000 of piastres, which were employed in the war against the Greeks) everything should be replaced on its former footing, and sent commissioners to Ackerman. Here a final term was again fixed for the decision of the divan, and on the 6th of October, 1826, eighty-two articles of the Russian ultimatum were accepted. The porte surrendered to the Russians all the fortresses in Asia which it had hitherto held back, and acknowledged the privileges granted by Russia to Servia, Moldavia, and Wallachia. The treaty was executed in 1827.

In the meanwhile the porte had begun its internal reform, and it was resolved utterly to exterminate the janizaries, who burnt the suburb of Galata, between the 3rd and 5th of January, 1826. An army was formed in June, 1826, and the janizaries destroyed, after a bloody struggle. The violence employed in the execution of this and other measures, caused an insurrection, in which six thousand houses were burnt in Constantinople. Instead of military insubordination, the most rigid military despotism began, which did not spare even the ulema. At the same time, the porte, in June, 1827, firmly refused the mediation of Russia, England, and France, in its war with the Greeks; and the grand seignor called all his subjects (Christians included) to arms, to fight, if necessary against all Europe. Our limits compel us to bring this sketch somewhat abruptly to a close. But for the more recent events connected with the Ottoman empire, in respect to its foreign relations, we refer the reader to the latter portions of our histories of Greece, Russia, and England.

THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND ESTABLISHMENT OF MAHOMETANISM.

A subject so curious and important as the religion established by Mahomet, which has been professed for more than eleven centures by many millions of the human race, and which at present prevails from the Ganges to Morocco, inclusive of a vast number of very populous islands, and every country where the tribes of Malays settle, in one direction, and from the southern extremity of Arabia to the borders of Hungary, in another, deserves to be particularly noticed in this place.

Mahomet, or more properly Mohammed, the founder of this singular and spreading faith, was born in the year 569 of the Christian era; he

sprung from the tribe of Koraish, and the family of Hashem; his grandfather, uncles, and lineal ancestors were princes; his family possessed, by hereditary right, the custody of the Caaba at Mecca, which was a place of worship resorted to by the Arabians long before the time of Mahomet. Notwithstanding the respectability of his descent, being left an orphan when very young, and being in low circumstances, he was recommended to Khadijah, a noble rich widow, for her factor, he having been bred to merchandize; in which capacity he acquitted himself so well that he gained the affections of his mistress, and, by marrying her, became as rich a merchant as any in Mecca; his kindness, attachment, and strict fidelity to his wife, who was much older than himself, are frequently alluded to by writers as proofs of a susceptible heart, and a generous and noble nature. His natural strength of mind, and intrepidity of spirit, prompted him to form great designs when his fortunes improved, although it is said that he was so illiterate as not to be capable of reading or writing. The want of learning was so far from proving an impediment to him in effecting his designs, that it very strongly promoted them; for the crafty Arab, who must unquestionably have merely affected this gross ignorance, insisted that the writings which he produced as revelations from God, were cleared of all imputation of being forgeries, for such elegance of style and excellence of doctrine could not originate from a man incapable alike of reading or writing: for this reason his followers, instead of being ashamed of their master's ignorance, glory in it, as an evident proof of his divine mission, and scruple not to call him, as he is called in the Koran itself, "the illiterate prophet." Sir William Jones relates a traditional story concerning the celebrated poet Lebid, who was cotemporary with Mahomet, and an avowed enemy to his new doctrine at its first promulgation; who, to express his opposition to it, hung a poem on the gate of the temple, as was then customary to be done, which poem contained a strong implied contempt of the new religion. This piece appeared so sublime that none of the poets chose to attempt an answer to it, till Mahomet, who was likewise a poet, having composed a chapter of the Koran, placed the exordium of it by the side of Lebid's poem; who no sooner read it, than he declared it to be something divine, confessed his own inferiority, tore his verses from the gate, embraced the religion he had stigmatized, and became afterwards essentially serviceable in replying to the satires of Amralkeis, who was unwearied in his attacks upon the doctrine of Mohammed.

The state of the world at that time was highly favourable to the introduction of a new religion: it had been the will of Heaven to permit the purity and simplicity of the doctrines of Christ to be contaminated and perverted by the artful wiles of priestcraft, which caused the grossest impositions to be practised upon an ignorant laity; pomp, splendour, and unintelligible worship, were substituted for the devotion of the heart, while the prayers offered up to imaginary and fictitious saints had effaced all just notions of the attributes of the Deity. Mohammed had made two journeys into Syria, where he had informed himself of the principles of Judaism, and the jargon which bore the name of Christianity: it is probable, indeed, that his mind was naturally prone to religious enthusiasm, and that he was a devotee before he became an impostor. His first design seems to have extended no farther than to bring the wild, intractable, and ardent Arabs to acknowledge one God and one king; and it is probable that for a considerable time his ambition extended no farther than to become the spiritual and temporal sovereign of Arabia. He began his eventful project by accusing both Jews and Christians of corrupting the revelations which had been made to them from heaven, and maintained that both Moses and Jesus Christ had prophetically foretold the coming of a prophet from God, which was accomplished in himself, the last and

greatest of the prophets; thus initiated, he proceeded to deliver detached sentences, as he pretended to receive them from the Almighty, by the hand of the angel Gabriel. These pretensions to a divine mission drew on him a requisition from the inhabitants of Mecca that he would convince them by working a miracle; but he replied, "God refuses those signs and wonders that would depreciate the merit of faith, and aggravate the guilt of infidelity." The unity of God was the grand and leading article in the creed he taught, to which was closely joined his own divine mission: *Allah il Allah, Muhamed resoul Allah*, is their preface to every act of devotion, and the sentence continually in their mouths: which is, "there is but one God, and Mohammed is his prophet."

The Arabian tribes, who occupied the country from Mecca to the Euphrates, were at that time known by the name of Saracens; their religion was chiefly gross idolatry, Sabianism having spread almost over the whole nation, though there were likewise numbers of Christians, Jews, and Magians, interspersed in those parts. The essence of that worship principally consisted in adoring the planets and fixed stars; angels and images they honoured as inferior deities, whose intercessions with the Almighty in their favour they implored: they believed in one God; in the future punishment of the wicked, for a long series of years, though not forever; and constantly prayed three times a day; namely, at sunrise, at its declination, and at sunset; they fasted three times a year; during thirty days, nine days, and seven days; they offered many sacrifices, but ate no part of them, the whole being burnt; they likewise turned their faces, when praying, to a particular part of the horizon; they performed pilgrimages to the city of Harran in Mesopotamia, and had a great respect for the temple of Mecca and the pyramids of Egypt, imagining the latter to be the sepulchres of Seth, also of Enos and Sabi, his two sons, whom they considered as the founders of their religion. Besides the book of Psalms, they had other books which they esteemed equally sacred, particularly one, in the Chaldee tongue, which they called "the book of Seth." They have been called "Christians of St. John the Baptist," whose disciples they also pretend to be, using a kind of baptism, which is the greatest mark they bear of Christianity: circumcision was practised by the Arabs, although Sale is silent on that practice, when describing the religion of the Sabians; they likewise abstained from swine's flesh. So that in this sect we may trace the essential articles of the creed of Mussulmans.

Mahomet was in the fortieth year of his age when he assumed the character of a prophet; he had been accustomed for several years, during the month of Ramadan, to withdraw from the world, and to secrete himself in a cave, three miles distant from Mecca; "conversation," says Mr. Gibbon, "enriches the understanding, but solitude is the school of genius." During the first three years, he made only fourteen proselytes, among which were his wife Khadijah, his servant, or rather slave, Zeid Ali, who afterward married the prophet's favourite daughter, Fatima, and was surnamed "the Lion of God;" Abubekar, a man distinguished for his merit and his wealth; the rest consisted of respectable citizens of Mecca. The Koreishites, although the tribe from which he sprung, were the most violent opposers of the new religion. In the tenth year of his prophetic office his wife died; and the next year, his enemies having formed a design to cut him off, and he being seasonably apprized, fled by night to Medina, on the 16th of July, 622, from which event the Hegira commenced; he was accompanied only by two or three followers, but he made a public entry into that city, and soon gained many proselytes, on which he assumed the regal and sacerdotal characters. As he increased in power, that moderation and humanity, which had before distinguished his conduct, were gradually erased, and he became fierce and sanguinary; he began to

avow a design of propagating his religion by the sword, to destroy the monuments of idolatry, and, without regarding the sanctity of days or months, to pursue the unbelieving nations of the earth. The Koran inculcates, in the most absolute sense, the tenets of faith and predestination. The first companions of Mahomet advanced to battle with a fearless confidence, their leader having fully possessed their minds with the assurance that paradise awaited those who died fighting for the cause of their prophet, the gratifications of which were held out to be such as best suited the amorous complexions of the Arabians. Houries of black-eyed girls, resplendent in beauty, blooming youth and virgin purity; every moment of pleasure was there to be prolonged to a thousand years, and the powers of the man were to be increased an hundred-fold to render him capable of such felicity: to those who survived, rich spoils and the possession of their female captives were to crown their conquests. Mahomet was present at nine battles or sieges; and fifty enterprises of war were achieved in ten years by himself or his lieutenants. Seven years after his flight from Mecca he returned to that city, where he was publicly recognized as a prince and prophet; the idolatrous worship of the Caaba was immediately abolished, and succeeded by the simplicity of the Mahometan establishment. This Arab lawgiver retained both his mental and bodily powers unimpaired till he reached his sixtieth year, when his health began to decline, and he himself suspected that a slow poison had been administered to him by a Jewess, under the effects of which he languished; but his death was caused by a fever, in the sixty-third year of his age, the six hundred and thirty-second of the Christian era, and tenth of the Hegira. There are some particulars told respecting Mahomet, which have gained general belief, although void of all foundation: such is the story of the tame pigeon, which the people were taught to believe imparted religious truths to the ear of the prophet; the epileptic fits, which have been said to cause him to fall down as in a trance, he is not supposed to have been subject to; and the suspension of his iron coffin at Mecca is a most absurd falsehood, it being well known that he was buried at Medina in a stone coffin.

Of the chapters of the Koran, which are one hundred and fourteen in number, the Sieur du Ryer makes ninety-four to have been received at Mecca, and twenty at Medina; but, according to Mr. Sale, a much better authority, the commentators on the Koran have not fixed the place where about twenty of these revelations were imparted; so that no inference can be drawn how far the prophet had proceeded in his pretended inspirations when he fled from Mecca; neither does the order in which they were written, for the seventy-fourth chapter is supposed to have been the first revealed, and the sixty-eighth to have immediately followed it.

The most amiable features in the religion which Mahomet established are, profound adoration of one God, whose names, or rather titles, are amazingly diversified in the Koran; (these are collected, to the amount of nine hundred and ninety-nine, and serve as a manual of devotion;) the daily offering up of prayers to him, which consist of short ejaculations; stated fasts, and a constant distribution af a large portion of personal property to the relief of the indigent and distressed; nor is the charity which is enjoined confined to alms-giving, but comprehends, in its fullest extent, general humanity and acts of beneficence to all Mussulmans. A general resurrection of the dead is another article of belief reiterated in the Koran Whatever superstitious practices adhere to it, cannot be imputed to priestcraft, for no religion that ever was promulgated to the world, the unadulterated religion of Jesus Christ excepted, so entirely excludes the influence of the priesthood; it may, indeed, be called emphatically "the laical religion," since its founder had the address to obtain the most enthusiastic regard to his dogmas, without giving wealth or consequence to those who were appointed to illustrate and enforce them; indeed, the Koran re-

proaches the Christians for taking their priests and monks for their lords beside God. The pilgrimage to Mecca, praying toward that place, and the ablutions which are enjoined on the most ordinary acts and occasions, together with the adoption of that religious sophism predestination, in its most extravagant extent, seem to comprehend the superstitious parts of this religion; but it has other characteristics which betray its spurious origin, and prove its destructive tendency.

To compensate for the rigid fastings which it enjoins, and the disuse of wine which it requires, a most licentious indulgence is allowed in the use of women; and though they may not, as has been imputed to them, deny to that sex a future state of existence, yet, as they consider women merely as instruments of gratification, all those amiable qualities which the sex is capable of displaying when the faculties are properly expanded by a judicious and liberal course of education, are suppressed as soon as formed. Another foul taint in this religion is, the abhorrence which it creates against all those who do not embrace the same doctrines; and also the direct tendency of that faith to consign the human mind to a state of arrogant and incurable ignorance by considering the Koran as comprising everything worthy of being known. The Arabs, from the genial influence of their climate, as well as from habits transmitted through so many generations as to be formed into innate principles, were libidinous beyond most of their species, and no individual among them felt that propensity stronger than their prophet; neither policy nor inclination therefore prompted him to bring his disciples under severe restraints with respect to women; he ought not, however, to be denied the praise which is due to having in some measure tempered the lustful fierceness of his countrymen; and he may be said to have effected some reformation, when he restrained his followers even to four wives, when he forbad incestuous alliances, entitled a repudiated wife to a dower from her husband, made adultery a capital offence, and rendered fornication punishable by law.

Besides the Koran, which is the written law to the Mahometans, alike as to the belief and practice of religion and the administration of public justice, there is the Sunnah, or oral law, which was selected, two hundred years after the death of Mahomet, from a vast number of precepts and injunctions which had been handed down from age to age, as bearing the stamp of his authority. In this work the right of circumcision is enjoined, concerning which the Koran was silent; nor was it necessary to be there commanded, as the Arabians adhered to it before this establishment. By the express command of their founder, the Mahometans set apart Friday in each week for the especial worship of God. They are ever assiduous to make converts to their faith; nor can they reject the most abject or profligate wretch who declares his desire of becoming a true believer, even although they know him to be ignorant alike of their language and the principles of their religion. Charity, as already observed, is enjoined in the strongest terms in the Koran; and the Turks are remarkable for acts of benevolence to the poor and the distressed, and are even careful to prevent the unfortunate being reduced to necessity. They repair highways, erect cisterns of water for the convenience of travellers, build kahns or caravanseras for their reception; and some devout people, it is said, erect sheds by the way side, that the weary traveller may sit under the shade and take his refreshment. In chap. iv. of the Koran are the following injunctions: "Show kindness to thy parents, to thy relations, to orphans, to the poor; to thy neighbor who is related to thee, and to thy neighbor who is a stranger; to thy familiar companion, to the traveler, and to the captive whom thy right hand has taken; for God loveth not the proud, the vain-glorious, the covetous, or those who bestow their wealth in order to be seen of men."

They name their children as soon as they are born; when the father, putting some grains of salt into its mouth, and lifting it on high, as dedicating it to God, cries out, "God grant, my son Solyman, that his holy name may be as savoury in thy mouth as this salt, and that he may preserve thee from being too much in love with the world." As to the infants who die young, before they are circumcised, they believe they are saved by the circumcision of their father. Their children are not circumcised, like those of the Jews, at eight days old, but at eleven or twelve, and sometimes at fourteen or fifteen years of age, when they are able to make a profession of their faith. When any renegade Christian is circumcised, two basins are usually carried after him, to gather the alms which the spectators freely give. Those who are uncircumcised, whether Turkish children or Christians, are not allowed to be present at their public prayers; and if they are taken in their mosques, they are liable to be impaled or burnt.

The fast of Ramadan is observed by the Turks exactly in the same manner as by the Persians. The feast of Bairam begins with the next new moon after that fast, and is published by firing of guns, bonfires, and other rejoicings. At this feast the houses and shops are adorned with their finest hangings, tapestries, and sofas. In the streets are swings ornamented with festoons, in which the people sit, and are tossed in the air, while they are at the same time entertained with vocal and instrumental music performed by persons hired by the masters of the swings. They have also fireworks; and, during the three days of this festival, many women, who are in a manner confined the rest of the year, have liberty to walk abroad. At this time they forgive their enemies, and become reconciled to them; for they think they have made a bad bairam, if they harbour the least malice in their hearts against any person whatsoever. This is termed the Great Bairam, to distinguish it from the Little Bairam, which they keep seventy days after. They have also several other festivals, on all which the steeples of the mosques are adorned with lamps placed in variour figures. They regularly pray three times a day, and are obliged to wash before their prayers, as well as before they presume to touch the Koran. As they make great use of their fingers in eating, they are required to wash after every meal, and the more cleanly among them do it before meals. After every kind of defilement, in fact, ablution is enjoined.

By the Mahometan law a man may divorce his wife twice, and if he afterwards repents, he may lawfully take her again; but Mahomet, to prevent his followers from divorcing their wives upon every slight occasion, or merely from an inconstant humour, ordained, that if any man divorces his wife a third time, it is not lawful for him to take her again, till she has been married and bedded by another, and divorced from that husband. The Koran allows no man to have more than four wives and concubines, but the prophet and his successors are laid under no restriction. Church government, by the institutions of Mahomet, appears to have centered in the mufti, and the order of the moulahs, from which the mufti must be chosen. The moulahs have been looked upon as ecclesiastics, and the mufti as their head; but the Turks consider the first rather as expounders of the law, and the latter as the great law officers. Those who really act as divines are the imaums, or parish priests, who officiate in, and are set aside for the service of the mosques. No church revenues are appropriated to the particular use of the moulahs; the imaums are the ecclesiastics in immediate pay. Their scheiks are the chiefs of their dervises (dervishes), or monks, and form religious communities, or orders, established on solemn vows; they consecrate themselves merely to religious offices, domestic devotion, and public prayer and preaching; there are four of these orders, the Bektoshi, Mevelevi, Kadri, and Seyah,

who are very numerous throughout the empire. The Mevelevi, in their acts of devotion, turn round with velocity for two or three hours incessantly. They are passionately fond of music, particularly a flute formed of an Indian reed; they live in their monastery; profess poverty and humility; entertain kindly all strangers, of whatever religion, who visit them; and receive alms. They sometimes even offer to wash the feet of a Mussulman. The Kadri express their devotion by lacerating their bodies; they walk the streets almost naked, with distracted and wild looks; they hold their hands joined together, as if in the act of prayer, except when they perform their religious dances, which they continue many hours, and sometimes the whole day, repeating incessantly, Hu! hu! hu! hu! one of their names of the deity, until at last, as if they were in a violent rage or phrensy, they fall to the ground, foaming at the mouth, and every part of their body bathed in sweat. The Seyahs, like the Indian fakiers, are little better than mere vagabonds.

The Turks appropriate to themselves the name of Moslemim, which has been corrupted into Mussulman, signifying persons professing the doctrine of Mahomet. They also term themselves Sonnites, or observers of the oral traditions of Mahomet and his three successors; and likewise call themselves True Believers, in opposition to the Persians and others, the adherents of Ali, whom they call a wicked and abominable sect. Their rule of faith and practice is the Koran. Some externals of their religion, besides the prescribed ablutions, are prayers, which are to be said five times every twenty-four hours, with the face turned towards Mecca, and alms, which are both enjoined and voluntary; the former consists of paying two and a half per cent. to charitable uses out of their whole income. Their feasts have been already spoken of; and every Mahometan must, at least, once in his lifetime, go in pilgrimage, either personally or by proxy, to the Caaba, or house of God at Mecca.

THE HISTORY OF INDIA.

As the Hindus (or Hindoos), never had any historical writings, all the information to be obtained respecting the *original* inhabitants of India, is gleaned from popular poems or the accounts of foreigners. How vague and unsatisfactory such accounts always are, and how mixed with fabulous invention, the result of all researches in such labyrinths most abundantly proves; we shall, therefore, make but a brief analysis of it. Under the name of *India* the ancients included no more than the peninsula on this side the Ganges, and the peninsula beyond it, having little or no knowledge of the countries which lie farther eastward. By whom these countries were originally peopled, is a question which has given rise to much speculation, but which, in all probability, will never be solved. Certain it is, that some works in these parts discover marks of astonishing skill and power in the inhabitants; such as the images in the island of Elephanta, the observatory at Benares, and many others. These stupendous works are, by Bryant, attributed to the Cushites or Babylonians; and it is possible that the subjects of Nimrod, the beginning of whose kingdom was in Shinar, might extend themselves in this direction, and thus fill the fertile regions of the east with inhabitants, before they

migrated to the less mild and rich countries to the westward. Thus would be formed for a time that great division betwixt the inhabitants of India and other countries; so that the western nations knew not even of the existence of India, but by obscure report; while the inhabitants of the latter, ignorant of their own origin, invented a thousand idle tales concerning the antiquity of their tribes.

According to Hindu tradition, then, and the popular legends of their bards, their country was at first divided between two principal families, called in oriental phraseology, "the families of the sun and moon." These were both said to be descended from Brahma originally, through the patriarchs Daksha and Atri, his sons. Vaiwaswat (the sun), had Daksha for his father; and Soma (the moon), sprung from Atri. The first prince of the family of the sun was named Ikshwaku, who was succeeded by his grandson, named Kakutstha. But the most celebrated prince was Rama, the son of Dasaratha, who was banished to the forests by his father for fourteen years, and was accompanied there by Sita, his wife.

Sita having been carried off by Ravana (or the giant with ten heads), who was king of Lanka, or Ceylon, Rama, assisted by Sugriva and Hanuman (who are described as monkeys), pursued him to his capital, took it, put him to death, and placed his brother Vibhishna on the throne. The traditions of the south of India add, that upon Rama's victory, colonists came from Ayodhya, or Oude, cleared and tilled the ground, and introduced the arts of civilized life. Rama returned to Ayodhya, over which he ruled for many years, and was succeeded by his son Kusa, whose posterity inherited the throne after him. Pururaves, the son of Budha, the son of the moon, was the first prince of the *lunar* dynasty. His capital was Pratishthana, at the confluence of the Ganges and Jumna. To him is attributed the discovery of the art of kindling fire. His eldest son, Ayus, succeeded him. Ayus had two sons, Nahusha, who succeeded him, and Kshetravtiddha, who established a separate principality at Kasi, or Benares. Nahusha's successor was Yayati, who had five sons, the youngest of whom, Puru, he named as his successor. To the other four, whose names were Yadu, Turvasu, Druhya, and Anu, he gave the viceroyship, under Puru, of certain provinces of the paternal kingdom. One of the descendants of Druhya was Gandhar, from whom the province now called Candahar, received its name. The posterity of Anu established themselves from the south of the province of Behar to the upper part of the Coromandel coast. In fact, it appears that the descendants of Yayati colonized and introduced civilization throughout the greater part of southern and western India. Among the descendants of Puru there were several celebrated princes, one of whom, named Bharata, the son of Dushyanta, ruled over a very extensive territory, so that India has been sometimes called after his name, Bharata Versha, the country of Bharata. The most material facts that we notice in these annals are, that some centuries after this, Hasti, a descendant of Puru, removed the capital further north, on the banks of the Ganges, which city was called after him, Hastinapur; also that, four descents after Hasti, the sovereign of Hastinapur was Kuru, from whom the country to the north-west was called Kurukshetra, a name it still retains.

"The whole course of the political history of ancient India," as Professor Wilson observes, "shows it to have been a country divided among numerous petty rajahs, constantly at variance with one another, and incapable of securing their subjects from the inroads of their neighbours, or the invasions of foreign enemies. The early religion of the Hindus, as represented in the Vedas, seems to have been little more than the adoration of fire and the elements. The attributes of a Supreme Being, as creator, preserver, and destroyer, were afterwards personified, and worshipped as the deities Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva. Philosophical notions

of matter and spirit were next embodied; and celebrated individuals, like the demigods of Greece, added to the Pantheon; other modifications, some as recent as four or five centuries, were subsequently introduced."

The division of the Hindus into castes is a peculiarity in their social condition, which early attracted notice; but such an arrangement was not uncommon in antiquity, and it prevailed in Persia and Egypt. In these countries it gradually ceased; but in India it has been carried far beyond the extent contemplated in the original system.

The original distinction was into Brahman, religious teacher; Kshetruja, warrior; Vaisya, agriculturist and trader; and Sudra, servile; but from the intermixture of these and their descendants, arose numerous other tribes or castes, of which the Hindus now chiefly consist; the Brahman being the only one of the four original divisions remaining.

The first among the western nations who distinguished themselves by their application to navigation and commerce, and who were of consequence likely to discover these distant nations, were the Egyptians and Phœnicians. The former, however, soon lost their inclination for naval affairs, and held all sea-faring people in detestation; though to the extensive conquests of Sesostris, if we can believe them, must this feeling in a great measure be attributed. He is said to have fitted out a fleet of four hundred sail in the Arabian Gulf or Red Sea, which conquered all the countries lying along the Erythrean Sea to India; while the army, led by himself, marched through Asia, and subdued all the countries to the Ganges; after which he crossed that river, and advanced to the Eastern ocean. Strabo rejected the account altogether, and ranks the exploits of Sesostris in India with the fabulous ones of Bacchus and Hercules.

Soon after the destruction of the Babylonian monarchy by the Persians, we find Darius Hystaspes undertaking an expedition against the Indians. Herodotus informs us, that he sent Scylax of Caryandra to explore the river Indus; who sailed from Caspatyrus, a town at its source, and near the territories of Pactya, eastward to the sea; thence, turning westward, he arrived at the place where the Phœnicians had formerly sailed round Africa, after which Darius subdued the Indians, and became master of that coast. His conquests, however, were not extensive, as they did not reach beyond the territory watered by the Indus; yet the acquisition was very important, as the revenue derived from the conquered territory, according to Herodotus, was near a third of that of the whole Persian empire.

According to Major Rennel, the space of country through which Alexander sailed on the Indus was not less than one thousand miles; and as, during the whole of that navigation, he obliged the nations on both sides of the river to submit to him, we may be certain that the country on each side was explored to some distance. An exact account, not only of his military operations, but of everything worthy of notice relating to the countries through which he passed, was preserved in the journals of his three officers, Lagus, Nearchus, and Aristobulus; and these journals Arrian followed in the composition of his history. From these authors we learn that, in the time of Alexander, the western part of India was possessed by seven very powerful monarchs. The territory of Porus, which Alexander first conquered and then restored to him, is said to have contained no fewer than two thousand towns; and the king of the Prasii had assembled an army of twenty thousand cavalry, two thousand armed chariots, and a great number of elephants, to oppose the Macedonian monarch on the banks of the Ganges.

The country on each side of the Indus was found, in the time of Alexander, to be in no degree inferior in population to the kingdom of Porus. The climate, soil, and productions of India, as well as the manners and customs of the inhabitants, are exactly described, and the descriptions found to correspond in a surprising manner with modern accounts. The

stated change of seasons, now known by the name of monsoons, the periodical rains, the swellings and inundations of the rivers, with the appearance of the country during the time they continue, are particularly mentioned. The descriptions of the inhabitants are equally particular; their living entirely upon vegetables; their division into tribes or castes, with many of the particularities of the modern Hindoos. The military operations, however, extended but a little way into India properly so called; no further, indeed, than the modern province of Lahore, and the countries on the banks of the Indus, from Moultan to the sea.

On the death of Alexander, the eastern part of his dominions devolved first on Pytho, the son of Agenor, and afterwards on Seleucus. The latter was sensible of the advantages of keeping India in subjection. With this view, he undertook an expedition into that country, partly to confirm his authority, and partly to defend the Macedonian territories against Sandracottus, king of the Prasii. The particulars of his expedition are very little known; Justin being the only author who mentions them. Plutarch tells us that Seleucus carried his arms farther into India than Alexander; and Pliny, whose authority is of considerably greater weight than either, in this instance, corroborates the testimony of Plutarch.

The career of Seleucus in the east was stopped by Antigonus, who prepared to invade the western part of his dominions. The former was, therefore, obliged to conclude a treaty with Sandracottus; but Dr. Robertson is of opinion, that during the lifetime of Seleucus, which continued forty-two years after the death of Alexander, no diminution of the Macedonian territories took place. With a view of keeping up a friendly intercourse with the Indian prince, Seleucus sent Megasthenes, one of Alexander's officers, to Palibothra, capital of the kingdom of the Prasii, on the banks of the Ganges. This city is by Dr. Robertson thought to be the modern Allahabad, but Major Rennel supposes it to be Patna. As Megasthenes resided in this city for a considerable time, he made many observations relative to India in general, which he afterwards published. But he mingled with his relations the most extravagant fables; such as accounts of men with ears so large that they could wrap themselves up in them; of tribes with one eye, without mouths or noses, &c., if the extracts from this book, given by Arrian, Diodorus, and other ancient writers, can be credited. After the embassy of Megasthenes to Sandracottus, and that of his son Damaichus to Allitrochidas, the successor of Sandracottus, we hear no more of the affairs of India with regard to the Macedonians, until the time of Antiochus the Great, who made a short incursion into India, about 197 years after the death of Seleucus. All that we know of this expedition is, that the Syrian monarch, after finishing a war he carried on against the two revolted provinces of Parthia and Bactria, obliged Sophagasenus, king of the country which he invaded, to pay a sum of money, and give him a number of elephants. It is probable that the successors of Antiochus were obliged, soon after his death, to abandon all their Indian territories.

After the loss of India by the Syrians, an intercourse was kept up for some time betwixt it and the Greek kingdom of Bactria. This last became an independent state about sixty-nine years after the death of Alexander; and, according to the few hints we have concerning it in ancient authors, carried on a great traffic with India. Nay, the Bactrian monarchs are said to have conquered more extensive tracts in that region than Alexander himself had done. Six princes reigned over this new kingdom in succession; some of whom, elated with the conquests they had made, assumed the title of the great king, by which the Persian monarchs were distinguished in their highest splendour. Strabo informs us, that the Bactrian princes were deprived of their territories by the Scythian nomades, known by the name of Asii, Pasiani, Tachari, and Scaurauli.

This is confirmed by the testimony of the Chinese historians, quoted by M. de Guignes. According to them, about 126 years before the Christian era, a powerful horde of Tartars, pushed from their native seats on the confines of China, and obliged to move farther to the west, poured in upon Bactria like an irresistible torrent, overwhelmed that kingdom, and put an end to the dominion of the Greeks, after it had lasted nearly 130 years.

From this time to the close of the fifteenth century, all thoughts of establishing any dominion in India were totally abandoned by the Europeans. The only object was to promote a commercial intercourse with that country; and Egypt was the medium by which that intercourse was to be promoted. Ptolemy, the son of Lagus, first raised the power and splendour of Alexandria, by carrying on a trade with India. His son Ptolemy Philadelphus prosecuted the same plan very vigorously. In his time the Indian commerce once more began to centre in Tyre; but, to remove it effectually thence, he attempted to form a canal between Arsinoe on the Red Sea, near the place where Suez now stands, and the Pelusiac, or eastern branch of the Nile. This canal was about one hundred cubits broad, and thirty deep; so that by means of it the productions of India might have been conveyed to Alexandria entirely by water.

On the conquest of Egypt by the Romans, the Indian commodities continued as usual, to be imported to Alexandria in Egypt, and from thence to Rome; but the most ancient communication betwixt the east and west parts of Asia seems never to have been entirely given up. Syria and Palestine are separated from Mesopotamia by a desert; but the passage through it was much faciliated by its affording a station which abounded in water. Hence the possession of this station became an object of such consequence, that Solomon built upon it the city called in Syrian Tadmor, and in Greek Palmyra. Both these names are expressive of its situation in a spot adorned with palm trees. Though its situation for trade may to us seem very unfavourable, being sixty miles from the Euphrates, by which alone it could receive the Indian commodities, and two hundred miles from the nearest coast of the Mediterranean; yet the value and small bulk of the goods in question, rendered the conveyance of them by a long carriage overland not only practicable, but lucrative and advantageous. Hence the inhabitants became opulent and powerful, and this place long maintained its independence after the Syrian empire became subject to Rome. The eagerness of the Romans for Asiatic luxuries kept up an intercourse with India during the time that the empire continued in its power; and, even after the destruction of the western part, it was kept up between Constantinople and those parts of India which had been visited formerly by merchants from the west. Long before this period, however, a much better method of sailing to India had been discovered by one Hippalus, the commander of an Indian ship, who lived about eighty years after Egypt had been annexed to the Roman empire. This man having observed the periodical shifting of the monsoons, and how steadily they blew from the east and west during some months, ventured to leave the coast, and sail boldly across the Indian Ocean, from the mouth of the Arabian Gulf to Musiris, a port on the Malabar coast; which discovery was reckoned a matter of such importance, that the name of Hippalus was given to the wind by which he performed the voyage. Pliny gives a very particular account of the manner in which the Indian traffic was now carried on, mentioning the particular stages and the distances between them.

While the Seleucidæ continued to enjoy the empire of Syria, the trade with India continued to be carried on by land. The Romans, having extended their dominions as far as the Euphrates, found this method of conveyance still established, and the trade was by them encouraged and protected. But the progress of the caravans being frequently interrupted

by the Parthians, particularly when they travelled towards those countires where silk and other of the most valuable manufactures were procured, it became an object to the Romans to conciliate the friendship of the sovereigns of those distant countries. Dr. Robertson takes notice, from the evidence of an Arabian merchant who wrote in 852, it appears, that not only the Saracens but the Chinese also, were destitute of the mariner's compass; contrary to a common opinion, that this instrument was known in the east long before its discovery in Europe. Notwithstanding this disadvantage, they penetrated far beyond Siam, which had set bounds to the navigation of Europeans. They became acquainted with Sumatra and other Indian islands; extending their navigation as far as Canton in China. A regular commerce was now carried on from the Persian Gulf to all the countries lying betwixt it and China, and even with China itself. Many Saracens settled in India, properly so called, as well as the countries beyond it. In the city of Canton they were so numerous that the emperor permitted them to have a cadi or judge of their own religion; the Arabian language was understood and spoken in every place of consequence; and ships from China even are said to have visited the Persian Gulf.

According to the Arabian accounts of those days, the peninsula of India was at that time divided into four kingdoms. The first was composed of the provinces situated on the Indus and its branches, the capital of which was Moultan. The second had the city of Canoge, which, from its remaining ruins, appears to have been a very large place. The Indian historians relate, that it contained thirty thousand shops in which betel-nut was sold, and sixty thousand sets of musicians and singers who paid a tax to government. The third city was that of Cachemire, first mentioned by Massoudi, who gives a short description of it. The fourth kingdom, Guzerat, is represented by the same author as the most powerful of the whole. Another Arab writer, who flourished about the middle of the fourteenth century, divides India into three parts; the northern comprehending all the provinces of the Indus; the middle extending from Guzerat to the Ganges; and the southern, which he denominates Comar, from cape Comorin. From the relation of the Arabian merchant above mentioned, explained by the commentary of another Arabian who had likewise visited the eastern part of Asia, we learn many particulars concerning the inhabitants of these distant regions at that time, which correspond with what is observed among them at this day. They take notice of the general use of silk among the Chinese, and the manufacture of porcelain, which they compare to glass. They also describe the tea-plant, with the manner of using its leaves; whence it appears, that in the ninth century the use of this plant in China was as common as it is at present. They mention likewise the great progress which the Indians had made in astronomy; a circumstance which seems to have been unknown to the Greeks and Romans; they assert, that in this branch of science they were far superior to the most enlightened nations of the west, on which account their sovereign was called the king of wisdom.

The superstitions, extravagant penances, &c., known to exist at this day among the Indians, are also mentioned by those writers; all which particulars manifest that the Arabians had a knowledge of India far superior to that of the Greeks or Romans. The industry of the Mohammedans, in exploring the most distant regions of the east, was rivalled, however, by the Christians of Persia, who sent missionaries all over India, and the countries adjoining, as far as China itself. But, while the western Asiatics thus kept up a constant intercourse with these parts, the Europeans had in a manner lost all knowledge of them. The port of Alexandria, from which they had formerly been supplied with the Indian goods, was now shut against them; and the Arabs, satisfied with supply-

ing the demands of their own subjects, neglected to send any by the usual channels to the towns on the Mediterranean. The inhabitants of Constantinople and some other great towns were supplied with Chinese commodities by the most tedious and difficult passage imaginable. In spite of every difficulty, however, this commerce flourished, and Constantinople became a considerable mart for East Indian commodities; and from it all the rest of Europe was chiefly supplied with them for more than two centuries. The perpetual hostilities in which the Christians and Mohammedans were during this period engaged, contributed still to increase the difficulty; but, the more it increased, the more desirous Europeans seemed to be of possessing the luxuries of Asia. About this time the cities of Amalfi and Venice, with some other in Italy, having acquired a great degree of independence, began to exert themselves in promoting domestic manufactures, and importing the productions of India.

At the end of the tenth century, a considerable revolution took place in India, by the conquests of Mahmud Gazni, who erected the empire of Gazna. And it is at this period that the authentic history is generally reckoned to commence. Mahmud's kingdom had arisen out of that of the Saracens, who had extended their conquests immensely, under the caliph Al-Walid, both to the east and west. He possessed great part of the ancient Bactria. Gazna, near the source of the Indus, and Balkh, were his chief cities. After conquering the rest of Bactria, he invaded Hindostan A. D. 1000, and reduced the province of Moultan, which was inhabited by the Kuttry and Rajpoot tribes (the Catheri and Malli of Alexander), who still retained their ancient bravery, and made a very formidable resistance. Mahmud being equally influenced by a love of conquest, and a superstitious zeal to exterminate the Hindoo religion, a league was at last formed against him among all the Indian princes, from the Ganges to the Nerbudda. Their allied troops were, however, defeated; and in 1008 the famous temple of Nagracut in the Punjab was destroyed. In 1011 Mahmud destroyed the city and temple of Tanafar, and reduced Delhi. In 1018 he took Canoge, and demolished the temples of that and several other cities; but failed in his attemps on Ajimere. In his twelfth expedition, in 1024, he reduced the whole peninsula of Guzerat, and destroyed the famous temple of Sumnaut, as well as those of all the other cities he conquered. At his death, in 1028, he possessed the east, and largest part of Persia, with the Indian provinces from the west part of the Ganges to Guzerat, and those between the Indus and the mountains of Ajimere. But in 1158 this extensive empire began to fall to pieces. The west and largest part was seized by the Gauri, while the east, contiguous to the Indus, remained in possession of Chosroe, whose capital was Lahore. In 1184 his sons were expelled by the Gauri, and in 1194 Mohammed Gori penetrated into Hindostan as far as Benares, committing as great devastation as Mahmud Gazni had done. He also reduced the south part of Ajimere, and the territory south of the Jumna, the fort of Gualior, &c. On his death, (1205,) the empire of Gazna was again divided, and the Patan or Alghan empire was founded by Cattub, who had the Indian part, the Persian remaining to Eldoze. Cattub made Delhi his capital; and in 1210 his successor, Altumish, reduced the greatest part of Hindostan Proper. One of his sons obtained the government of Bengal, and, from this period, one of the emperor's sons had always that government. During his reign, the bloody Genghis Khan put an end to the other branch of the Gaznian empire, but Hindostan was left undisturbed.

From this period the most dreadful confusion and massacres followed almost to the time that the British government commenced. The empire being subdivided among a set of rapacious governors, the people were reduced to the greatest degree of misery. To add to their distress, the

Moguls made such frequent and formidable invasions, that at last the emperor Ferose II. allowed them to settle in the country in 1292. The emperor was incited by Alla, governor of Gurrah, to attempt the conquest of the Deccan; and Alla being employed in that business, wherein he amassed an immense quantity of treasure, no sooner accomplished it, than he deposed and murdered Ferose, and assumed the sovereignty of Hindostan. In 1306 the conquest of the Deccan was undertaken; and in 1310 Alla carried his army into Dowlatabad and the Carnatic. But all this usurper's expeditions and those of his general, Cafoor, seem to have been made more with a view of plunder than of permanent conquest. Under Mohammed III. the inhabitants of the Deccan revolted, aud drove the Mohammedans completely out of all their territories, except the city of Dowlatabad.

Ferose III., who succeeded Mohammed in 1351, was a wise prince, who preferred the improvement of his empire by the arts of peace to the extension of it by war and conquest. In his reign, which lasted thirty-seven years, agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, were encouraged. But upon his death in 1388, a civil war broke out, which continued five years, till Mahmud III. succeeded, in 1393. During this period Hindostan exhibited the uncommon phenomenon of two emperors residing in the same capital, yet at war with each other. In this unfortunate situation of affairs, Tamerlane, after subduing all the west of Tartary and Asia, turned his arms against Hindostan, and made an easy conquest of it. But the cruel monster, not contented with his victory, ordered a general massacre of the inhabitants, in consequence of which, it is said, that one hundred thousand of them were murdered in one hour. In January, 1399, he defeated the Indian army with great slaughter, and soon after took Delhi, which then consisted of three cities surrounded by walls. Though no resistance was made, and of course there was no pretence for bloodshed, yet a quarrel was fomented within a few days by his Tartar soldiers, who pillaged the city, massacred most of the people, and sold the rest for slaves. The spoils, in plate and jewels, were immense. After this dreadful carnage, Tamerlane marched through the other provinces of Hindostan, defeating the Indians everywhere, and slaughteriug the worshippers of fire. On the 25th of March, this insatiable conqueror retired, leaving Mahmud in possession of the throne, and reserving only Punjab to himself.

The death of Mahmud III., in 1413, put an end to the Patan dynasty. He was succeeded by Chizer, a descendant of Mahomet, and his posterity continued to reign until 1450, when Alla II. abdicated the throne, and Belloli, an Affghan, took possession of it. Under him a prince who resided at Jionpour, became so formidable, that he left him only the shadow of authority. Belloli's son, however, recovered a great part of the empire, about 1501, when he made Agra his residence. In the reign of Ibraham II., sultan Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, conquered a considerable part of the empire. His first expedition was in 1518; and in 1525 he took Delhi. On the death of Baber, who reigned only five years, his son Humaioon was driven from the throne, and obliged to take shelter among the Rajpoot princes of Ajimere. The sovereignty was usurped by Sheer Khan, who in 1545 was killed at the siege of Cheitou. His territories extended from the Indus to Bengal; but the government was so unsettled that no fewer than five sovereigns succeeded within nine years after his death. This induced a strong party to join in recalling Humaioon, who is said to have been a prince of great virtue and abilities; but he lived only one year after his return. Upon his death, in 1555, his son Ackbar, one of the greatest princes that ever reigned in Hindostan, succeeded. He was then only fourteen years of age; but, during the long reign of

fifty-one years, he established the empire on a more sure foundation than it had probably ever been before.

We are now come to a period when the European powers began to be interested in the affairs of Hindostan. The Cape of Good Hope had been doubled in the reign of John II., king of Portugal: Emanuel, his successor, equipped four ships, for the discovery of the Indian coast, and gave the command to Vasco de Gama, who, having weathered several storms in his cruise along the eastern coast of Africa, landed in Hindostan, after a voyage of thirteen months. This country, which has since been almost entirely reduced by war under a foreign yoke, was, at the time of the arrival of the Portuguese, divided between the kings of Cambaya, Delhi, Bisnagur, Narzingua, and Calicut, each of which reckoned several sovereigns among their tributaries. The last of these monarchs, who is better known by the name of *zamorin*, which signifies emperor, possessed the most maritime states, and his empire extended over all Malabar. Vasco de Gama having informed himself of these particulars when he touched at Melinda, hired an able pilot to conduct him to that port in which trade was the most flourishing. Here he fortunately met with a Moor of Tunis, who understood the Portuguese language, and he put himself under his direction. He procured Gama an audience of the zamorin, who proposed an alliance and a treaty of commerce with the king his master. This was upon the point of being concluded, when the Mussulmen interfered, who so far swayed the monarch from his purpose, that he resolved to destroy the adventurers, to whom he had just before given so favourable a reception. The zamorin, who wanted neither power nor inclination, wanted courage to put his design into execution; and Gama was permitted to return to his fleet: he sailed for Lisbon, which he reached in safety, and was received with rapturous joy by the people. The pope gave to Portugal all the coasts they should discover in the east; and a second expedition soon after took place, under the command of Alvarez Cabral, consisting of thirteen vessels. They first visited Calicut, where fifty Portuguese were massacred by the inhabitants, through the intrigues of the Moors. Cabral, in revenge, burnt all the Arabian vessels in the harbour, cannonaded the town, and then sailed to Cochin, and from thence to Cananor. The kings of both these towns gave him spices, gold, and silver, and proposed an alliance with him against the zamorin, to whom they were tributaries. Other kings followed their example; and this infatuation became so general, that the Portuguese gave the law to almost the whole country of Malabar. The port of Lisbon now become the grand mart of Indian commodities. To secure and extend these advantages, it was necessary to establish a system of power and commerce. With a view to these objects, the court of Portugal wisely reposed its confidence in Alphonso Albuquerque, the most discerning of all the Portuguese that had been in India. The new viceroy acquitted himself beyond expectation. He fixed upon Goa, where there was a good harbour and wholesome air, as an establishment, being situated in the middle of Malabar, belonging to the king of the Deccan; and this soon after became the metropolis of all the Portuguese settlements in India. As the government soon changed its schemes of trade into projects of conquest, the nation, which had never been guided by the true commercial spirit, soon assumed that of rapine and plunder. In reference to this we may observe, that of all the conquests made by the Portuguese in India, they possess at present only Macao, Diu, and Goa: and the united importance of these three settlements in their intercourse with India and Portugal is very inconsiderable.

Towards the close of the sixteenth century, Drake, Stephens, Cavendish, and some other English navigators, by doubling Cape Horn, and the Cape of Good Hope, reached India. The success attending these first

voyages, was sufficient to determine some of the principal merchants in London to establish a company in 1600, which obtained an exclusive privilege of trading to the East Indies for fifteen years. The funds of this company were, in the beginning, inconsiderable. They fitted out four ships, which sailed in 1601, under Lancaster, an able man, who arrived with them, in 1602, at the port of Achen, at that time a celebrated mart. He was received by the king with the highest marks of respect, and had every favour shown him that could be wished for, to facilitate the establishment of an advantageous commerce. The English admiral was received at Bantam in the same manner as at Achen; and a ship, which he had despatched to the Molucca islands, brought him a considerable cargo of cloves and nutmegs; with these valuables and pepper, which he took in at Java and Sumatra, he returned safe to England. The company now determined to form settlements, but not without the consent of the natives. They applied to James I., for assistance, but obtained none. They, however, out of their small funds, erected forts and founded colonies, in the islands of Java, Poleron, Amboyna, and Banda. They likewise shared the spice trade with the Dutch, who soon became jealous of their rising prosperity. They at first proceeded by accusations, equally void of truth and decency, to make the English odious to the natives of the country; but these expedients not meeting with success, they resolved to proceed to acts of violence; and the Indian ocean became the scene of the most bloody engagements between the maritime forces of the two nations. In 1619, the two companies signed a treaty, signifying, that the Molucca islands, Amboyna, and Banda, should belong in common to both nations. The Dutch, however, not only soon found means to render the treaty ineffectual, but to drive the English from Amboyna. This latter transaction was replete with so much cruelty, that it will remain a lasting stigma on the Dutch nation. The English, harassed in every mart by the Dutch, who were bent on their destruction, were obliged to give way to their power. India was totally forgotten; and the company was greatly reduced at the death of Charles I. Cromwell, proud of his success, and sensible of his own strength, was piqued that the republic of the United Provinces should pretend to the dominion of the sea, and declared war against the Dutch. Of all the maritime wars which have been recorded in history, none were conducted with more knowledge and bravery; none have abounded with more obstinate and bloody engagements. The English gained the superiority, and peace ensued. But to return:

Under Ackbar's successor, Jehan Guire, the war was faintly carried on, the empire being disturbed by his rebellious son Shah Jehan, and his councils distracted by the influence of his mistress, Noor Jehan. In this monarch's reign, Sir Thomas Roe, the first British ambassador at the court of Hindostan, arrived. Jehan Guire died in 1627, and was succeeded by his son Shah Jehan who pushed the conquest of the Deccan with vigour, but in so destructive a manner, that most of the princes submitted. A war next broke out with the Portuguese, which ended in their expulsion from Hoogly. Shah Jehan was a debauched prince; and his rebellion against his father was retaliated by that of his son Aurungzebe, who dethroned him, disguising his ambition under the mask of religion, and committing the greatest crimes under that pretence. He engaged in a war with his brothers, Morad and Dara, whom he defeated and put to death, and then pretended to lament their misfortune. He, however, treated his father with tenderness till his death in 1666. From 1660, when Aurungzebe attained full possession of the throne, till 1678, a profound tranquillity prevailed throughout the empire; but from a jealousy of Sevagee, the founder of the Mahratta states, he undertook the conquest of the Deccan; and, having quelled a rebellion of the Patans beyond the Indus, he persecuted the Hindoos so severely, that the Rajpoot tribes in

Ajimere commenced a war against him. At his death in 1707, his empire extended from 10° to 35° latitude, and nearly as many degrees in longitude. "His revenue," says Major Rennel, "exceeded £35,000,000 sterling, in a country where provisions are about four times as cheap as in England. But so weighty a sceptre could be wielded only by a hand like Aurungzebe's; and, accordingly, in fifty years after his death, a succession of weak princes and wicked ministers reduced this astonishing empire to nothing." He left four sons, Mausum, Azem, Kaum-Bush, and Ackbar. This last had rebelled against his father, and been obliged to fly to Persia thirty years before. A civil war commenced between Mausum and Azem; and a decisive battle was fought, wherein three hundred thousand men were engaged on each side, and Azem was defeated and killed. Mausum then assumed the title of Bahader Shah, and, during his short reign of five years, gave proofs of considerable abilities. He defeated and killed his brother Kaum-Bush; after which he reduced the seiks, a new set of religionists, who, in the reign of Shah Jehan, had silently established themselves along the eastern mountains, and had now taken up arms in Lahore, ravaging the country to the banks of the Jumna.

About this time the English East India Company obtained the famous firman, or grant, by which their goods of export and import were exempted from duties. Furroksere was deposed and murdered by the brothers Houssein and Abdoolah, who set up another emperor whom they also deposed and murdered in the same year; and thus, in eleven years after Aurungzebe's death, eleven of his posterity, who had either possessed or been competitors for the throne, were exterminated; and the government declined so rapidly, that the empire seemed ready to fall to pieces. In 1718, the two brothers raised to the throne Mohammed Shah, the grandson of Bahader: who, warned by the fate of his predecessors, soon rid himself of these two powerful subjects, though at the expense of a civil war. But new enemies started up. Nizam Al Mulck, viceroy of the Deccan, in 1722, had been offered the place of vizier, or prime minister, but did not accept it. Independence was his aim, and the increasing power of the Mahrattas, furnished him with a pretence for augmenting his army. Persuaded that he had a party at court, he, in 1738, came thither, with a great body of armed followers; but, finding that the interest of the emperor was still too powerful for him, he invited the famous Persian usurper, Nadir Shah, or Kouli Khan, to invade Hindostan. This invitation was readily accepted, and Nadir entered the country without opposition; yet, when far advanced into Hindostan, he considered the issue of matters to be so uncertain, that he offered to evacuate the country and retire for fifty lacks of rupees, about £500,000 sterling. The intrigues of the Nizam and his party hindered the emperor from complying with this demand; instead of which he threw himself upon the usurper's mercy, who then took possesion of Delhi, and demanded a ransom of £30,000,000 sterling. After a conference with the emperor, Nadir seized upon two hundred cannon, with some treasure and jewels, which he sent off to Candahar. He then marched back to Delhi, where a commotion arose about the price of corn. While Nadir endeavoured to quell it, a shot was fired at him, and narrowly missed him; upon which the barbarian ordered a general massacre of the inhabitants, and slaughtered one hundred and twenty thousand, or, according to some, one hundred and fifty thousand persons. This was followed by a seizure of all the jewels, plate, &c., which could be found; besides, exacting the £30,000,000, which was done with the utmost rigour.

In the midst of these scenes Nadir caused the marriage of his son to be celebrated with a grand-daughter of Aurungzebe, and then took leave of the emperor, with professions of friendship, on the 6th of May, 1739.

He is said to have carried off goods and treasure to the value of £135,000,000 sterling. Mohammed had also ceded to him all the provinces of Hindostan west of the Indus. About the same time the Rohillas, a tribe from the mountains between India and Persia, erected an independent state on the east of the Ganges, eighty miles from Delhi. The empire seemed now to be running fast to its dissolution. Nadir Shah being murdered, Abdallah, one of his generals, seized on the east of Persia, and the adjacent Indian provinces which Mohammed Shah had ceded to Nadir, and formed them into the kingdom of Kandahar. In 1739, Mohammed Shah died, and was succeeded by his son Ahmed; during whose reign, which lasted only six years, the division of the remainder of the empire took place: and nothing remained to the family of Tamerlane but a small tract of territory round Delhi. In 1748 the Nizam Al Mulck died, at the age of 104, and was succeeded by his son Nazir Jung, to the prejudice of his elder brother Gazi, vizier to the nominal emperor. The contest that followed on this occasion, for the throne of the Deccan and the nabobship of Arcot, first engaged the British and French to act as auxiliaries on opposite sides. Immediately after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the French commandant, M. Dupleix, began to sow dissension among the nabobs, who had by this time usurped the sovereignty of the country.

On this occasion Mr. (afterwards lord) Clive first appeared in a military capacity. He had been employed before as a writer, but seemed very little qualified for that department of civil life. He now marched toward Arcot at the head of two hundred and ten Europeans and five hundred sepoys; and in his first expedition displayed the qualities of a great commander. His movements were conducted with such secresy and dispatch, that he made himself master of the enemy's capital before they knew of his march; and gained the affections of the people by his generosity, in affording protection without ransom. In a short time, however, he found himself invested in fort St. David's by rajah Saib, son to Chunda Saib, an Indian chief, pretender to the nabobship of Arcot, at the head of a numerous army; the operations of the siege being conducted by European engineers. But Mr. Clive, having intelligence of the intended attack, defended himself with such vigour, that the assailants were everywhere repulsed with loss, and obliged precipitately to raise the siege. He then marched in quest of the enemy; and, having overtaken them in the plains of Arani, attacked and entirely defeated them. This victory was followed by the surrender of the forts of Timery, Conjaveram, and Arani; after which, he returned in triumph to fort St. David's. In the beginning of 1752, he marched toward Madras, where he was reinforced by a small body of troops from Bengal. Though the whole did not exceed three hundred Europeans, with as many natives as were sufficient to give the appearance of an army, he boldly proceeded to a place called Koveripank, about fifteen miles from Arcot, where the enemy lay to the number of one thousand five hundred sepoys, one thousand seven hundred horse, with one hundred and fifty Europeans, and eight pieces of cannon. Victory was long doubtful, until Mr. Clive having sent round a detachment to fall upon the rear of the enemy, while the English attacked the entrenchments in front with their bayonets, a general confusion ensued, the enemy was routed with considerable slaughter, and only saved from total destruction by the darkness of the night. The French to a man threw down their arms on this occasion, and surrendered themselves prisoners of war; all the baggage and cannon falling at the same time into the hands of the victors.

M. Dupleix, mortified at this bad success, proclaimed rajah Saib, son of Chunda Saib, nabob of Arcot; and afterwards produced forged commissions from the great Mogul, appointing him governor of all the Carnatic

from the Kristnah to the sea. To carry on this deception, a messenger pretended to come from Delhi, and was received with all the pomp of an ambassador from the great Mogul. Dupleix, mounted on an elephant and preceded by music and dancing women, after the oriental fashion, received his commission from the hands of this imposter; after which he affected the state of an eastern prince; kept his durbas at court, appeared sitting cross-legged on a sofa, and received presents as sovereign of the country, from his own council as well from the natives. Thus the forces of the English and French East India companies were engaged in a course of hostilities, under the title of auxiliaries to the contending parties at a time when no war existed between the two nations. Next year both parties received considerable reinforcements; the English by the arrival of Admiral Watson with a squadron of ships of war, having on board a regiment commanded by Colonel Aldercroon; and the French by M. Gadeheu, commissary and governor-general of all their settlements, on whose arrival M. Dupleix departed for Europe; and a provisional treaty and truce were concluded, on condition that neither of the two companies should for the future interfere in any of the differences that might take place in the country. Matters, however, did not long continue in a state of tranquillity. Early in 1755, it appeared that the French were endeavouring to get possession of all the Deccan. M. Bussy, the successor of Dupleix, demanded the fortress of Golconda, from Salabat Zing; and M. Leyrit encouraged the governor who rented Velu to take up arms against the nabob. He even sent three hundred French and as many sepoys from Pondicherry to support this rebel, and oppose the English employed by the nabob to collect his revenues from the tributary princes.

Aliverdi Khan, an able and prudent subahdar, who had for fifteen years been nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, having died in 1756, Surajah Dowla succeeded to the nabobship. He was congratulated upon his accession by Mr. Drake, the English president at Calcutta, and readily promised protection to his countrymen; but he soon after took offence at the imprisoment of Omichund, an eminent Gentoo merchant, who had lived several years under the protection of the English government. Of this circumstance, however, Surajah did not directly complain; but founded his pretence of war upon the conduct of the English in repairing the fortifications of Calcutta; which indeed was absolutely necessary, on account of the great probability of a war with the French. The nabob, however, threatened an attack if the works were not instantly abolished. With this requisition the president and council pretended to comply; but they nevertheless went on with them. Surajah Dowla took the field on the 30th of May, 1756, with an army of forty thousand foot, thirty thousand horse, and four hundred elephants; and on the 2d of June, detatched twenty thousand men to invest the fort of Cassumbazar, a large town on an island formed by the west branch of the Ganges. This fort was regularly built, with sixty cannon, and defended by three hundred men, principally sepoys. The nabob pretending a desire to treat, Mr. Watts, the chief of the factory, was persuaded to put himself in his power; which he had no sooner done, than he was made a close prisoner, along with Mr. Batson, a surgeon, who accompanied him. The two prisoners were treated with great indignity, and threatened with death; but two of the council who had been sent for by the tyrant's command were sent back again, with orders to persuade the people of the factory to surrender at discretion. This proposal met with great opposition; but was at last complied with, though very little to the advantage of the prisoners; for they were not only deprived of every thing they possessed, but stripped almost naked, and sent to Hoogly, where they were closely confined. The nabob, encouraged by this success, marched directly to Calcutta, which he invested on the 15th.

It was impossible that the garrison could long defend themselves against the great force brought against it; little or no attempt was therefore made at resistance: the fort was consequently soon taken, and the effects of the factory destroyed. Many of the English escaped in boats and ships down the river, but many were taken; of these, one hundred and forty-six were confined for the night in a room twenty feet square, named the Blackhole, and which the English had made for a place of confinement. The dreadful heat and want of air quickly deprived some of existence; others lost their reason, and expired raving mad; their entreaties and offers of money to their guards to give them water, or to remove them, were mocked at or disregarded; and when the door of the dungeon was opened next morning, only twenty-three were taken out alive. Having plundered the town, Surajah Dowla departed, leaving in it a garrison of three thousand men. The news of this disaster put an end to the expedition projected against M. Bussy; and Colonel Clive was instantly despatched to Bengal with four hundred Europeans and one thousand sepoys, on board of the fleet commanded by Admiral Watson. They did not arrive till the 15th of December, at a village called Fulta, situated on a branch of the Ganges, where the inhabitants of Calcutta had taken refuge after their misfortune. Their first operations were against the forts of Busbudgia, Tanna, Fort William, and Calcutta, now in the hands of the enemy. All these were reduced almost as soon as they approached them. Hoogly, the place of rendezvous for all nations who traded to Bengal, (its warehouses and shops being always filled with the richest merchandize of the country), was likewise reduced and destroyed, with its granaries and store-houses of salt on each side of the river; which proved very detrimental to the nabob, by depriving him of the means of subsistence for his army.

Surajah Dowla, enraged at the success of the English, now seemed determined to crush them at once by a general engagement. From this, however, he was intimidated by a successful attack on his camp, which induced him to conclude a treaty, on the 9th of February, 1757, on the following conditions:—1. That the privileges granted to the English by the Mogul should not be disputed:—2. That all goods with English orders should pass by land or water, free of any tax:—3. All the company's factories which had been seized by the nabob should be restored; and the goods, money, and effects accounted for:—4. That the English should have liberty to fortify Calcutta; and 5. To coin their own gold and silver. As intelligence was now received of a war between France and England, an attack was meditated on Chandernagore. It remained, therefore, only to obtain the consent of the nabob; but, in ten days after the conclusion of the treaty, he sent a letter to Admiral Watson, complaining of his intention, and surmising that the English designed to turn their arms against him as soon as they made themselves masters of Chandernagore. This was strenuously denied by the admiral; and a number of letters passed, in which the latter made use of expressions which were supposed to imply a tacit consent that Chandernagore should be attacked. An attack was therefore made, and it soon capitulated. This intelligence, however, seemed to be by no means agreeable to Surajah Dowla. He pretended displeasure on account of the English infringing the treaties, and complained that they had ravaged some parts of his dominions. This was denied by the admiral; but from this time both parties made preparations for war. The nabob returned no answer till the 13th of June, when he sent a declaration of war. The English council at Calcutta now resolved on the deposition of the nabob; which at this time appeared practicable, by supporting the pretensions of Meer Jaffier Ali Cawn, who had entered into a conspiracy against him. Meer Jaffier had married the sister of Cilverdi Cawn, the predecessor of Surajah; and was now supported in

his pretensions by the general of the horse, and by Jugget Seet, the nabob's banker, the richest merchant in all India.

Colonel Clive began his march against Surajah Dowla on the 13th of June. The decisive action at Plassey followed (June 23), in which the treachery of Meer Jaffier, who comanded part of the nabob's troops, stood neuter during the engagement, and rendered the victory easy. At daybreak the nabob's army of fifteen thousand horse and fifteen thousand foot, advanced to attack the English. Clive's troops were posted in a grove defended by mud-banks. After cannonading them till noon, the enemy retired to their fortified camp; and shortly after, Clive stormed an angle of it, put them to the rout, and pursued them for a space of six miles. The unfortunate nabob fled to his capital, but left it the following evening disguised like a faquir, with only two attendants. By these he appears to have been abandoned and even robbed; for on the 3rd of July he was found wandering forsaken and almost naked on the road to Patna. Next day he was brought back to Muxadabad, and a few hours after privately beheaded by Meer Jaffier's eldest son. Meer Jaffier and his English allies now took possession of the capital in triumph. On the 29th of June, Colonel Clive went to the palace, and, in presence of the rajahs and grandees of the court, solemnly handed him to the musnud (or carpet) and throne of state, where he was unanimously saluted subahdar, or nabob, and received the submission of all present. While these transactions were going forward, the utmost efforts were used to expel the French entirely from Bengal. It had all along, indeed, been the opinion of Clive that it was impossible for the French and English to co-exist in India.

Both parties now received considerable reinforcements from Europe; Admiral Pocock was joined by Commodore Stevens with five men-of-war and two frigates; while a squadron was sent from France having on board General Lally with a large body of troops. The British admiral went in quest of the French fleet, and an engagement took place, in which the French were defeated with the loss of six hundred killed and a great number wounded. In the treaty concluded by Clive with the new subahdar, it was stipulated that one hundred lacs of rupees should be paid to the East India Company for their losses and the expenses of the campaign, with compensation to all the sufferers at the taking of Calcutta: the company was also to have the zemindary, (or right of farming the produce of the soil claimed by the crown) of a tract of country to the south of that city. The subahdar was also profuse in his donations to those to whom he was indebted for his throne. His gifts to Clive amounted to £180,000; and however much the latter may have been censured at the time for receiving a reward from the subahdar, he was justified by the usages of Asia, and there seems to be no reason why he should refuse a gift from the prince whom he had so greatly benefitted.

The remainder of the year 1759 proved entirely favourable to the British arms. D'Ache, the French admiral, who had been very roughly handled by Admiral Pocock on the 3rd of August, 1758, having refitted his fleet, and being reinforced by three men-of-war at the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon, now ventured once more to face his antagonist. A third battle ensued on the 10th of September, 1759, when the French, notwithstanding their superiority both in number of ships and weight of metal, were obliged to retreat with considerable loss, having fifteen hundred men killed and wounded, while those on board the English fleet did not exceed five hundred and seventy. By the 17th of October the British fleet was completely refitted; and Admiral Pocock, having been joined by a reinforcement of four men-of-war, soon after returned to England. All this time the unfortunate General Lally had been employed in unsuccessful endeavours to retrieve the affairs of his countrymen: but his fate was

at last decided by laying siege to Wandewash, which had lately been taken by Colonel Coote. The advantage in number was entirely in favour of the French general; the British army consisting only of seventeen hundred Europeans, including artillery and cavalry, while the French amounted to two thousand two hundred Europeans. The auxiliaries on the English side were three thousand black troops, while those of the French amounted to ten thousand black troops and three hundred Caffres; nor was the difference less in proportion in the artillery, the English bringing into the field only fourteen pieces of cannon and one howitzer, while the French had twenty-five pieces in the field and five on their batteries against the fort. The battle began at noon (January 22, 1760), and in three hours the whole French army fled toward their camp; but quitted it on finding themselves pursued by the English, who took all their cannon except three small pieces. They collected themselves under the walls of Cheltaput, about eighteen miles from the field of battle, and soon after retired to Pondicherry.

Colonel Coote now caused the country to be wasted to the very gates of this fortress, by way of retaliation for what the French had done in the neighborhood of Madras. He then set about the siege of Cheltaput, which surrendered in one day; a considerable detachment of the enemy was intercepted by Captain Smith; the fort of Timery was reduced by Major Monson, and the city of Arcot by Captain Wood. This last conquest enabled the British to restore the nabob to his dominions, of which he had been deprived by the French, and it weakened both the French force and interest in India. M. Lally, in the meantime, had called his forces from Syringham, by which means he augmented his army with five hundred Europeans. These were now shut up in Pondicherry, which was the last hope of the French in India. To complete their misfortunes, Admiral Cornish arrived at Madras with six men-of-war; and, as the French had now no fleet in these parts, the admiral readily engaged to cooperate with the land forces. The consequence was the reduction of Carical, Chellambrum, and Verdachellum, by a strong detachment under Major Monson; while Colonel Coote reduced Permacoil, Almamverpa, and Waldour. He was thus at last enabled to lay siege to Pondicherry itself; and the place capitulated on the 15th of January, 1761, by which an end was put to the power of the French in this part of the world.

While the British were thus emyloyed, Meer Jaffier, the nabob of Bengal, who had been raised to that dignity by the ruin of Surajah Dowla, found himself in a very disagreeable situation. The treasure of the late nabob had been valued at sixty-four crore of rupees (about £80,000,000 sterling), and in expectation of this sum, Meer Jaffier had submitted to the exactions of the English. On his accession to the government, however, the treasure of which he became master fell so much short of expectation, that he could not fulfil his engagements to them, and was reduced to the extremity of mortgaging his revenues. In this dilemma his grandees became factious and discontented, his army mutinous for want of pay, and himself odious to his subjects. To this it may be added, that Mr. Vansittart, the successor of Clive, who knew but little of the merits of the respective parties, was willing to conclude a treaty with Cossim Ali, the nabob's son-in-law, for his dethronement; by which the provinces of Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chittagong, were to be made over to the company, and large rewards given to the members of council. Meer Cossim was accordingly raised to the musnud; and the old nabob hurried into a boat with a few of his domestics and necessaries, and sent away to Calcutta in a manner wholly unworthy of the high rank he so lately held. So unblushingly, indeed, was the whole of this affair conducted, that the servants of the company, who were the projectors of the revolution, made no secret that there was a present promised them of twenty

lacs of rupees from Cossim, who was desirous of making the first act of his power the assassination of Jaffier; and was very much displeased when he found that the English intended giving him protection at Calcutta.

It could scarcely be supposed that Meer Cossim, raised to the nabobship in this manner, would be more faithful to the English than Meer Jaffier had been. Nothing advantageous to the interests of the company could indeed be reasonably expected from such a revolution. No successor of Meer Jaffier could be more entirely in subjection than the late nabob, from his natural imbecility, had been. This last consideration had induced many of the council at first to oppose the revolution; and indeed the only plausible pretence for it was, that the administration of Meer Jaffier was so very weak, that, unless he was aided and even controlled by some persons of ability, he himself must soon be ruined, and very probably the interests of the company along with him. Meer Cossim, however, was a man of very different disposition from his father-in-law. As he knew he had not been served by the English out of friendship, so he did not think of making any return out of gratitude; but, instead of this, considered only how he could most easily break with such troublesome allies. For a while, however, it was necessary for him to take all the advantage he could of his alliance with them. By their assistance he cleared his dominions of invaders, and strengthened his frontiers, and he reduced the rajahs who had rebelled against his predecessor, obliging them to pay the usual tribute; by which means he repaired his finances, and thereby secured the fidelity of his troops.

Having thus, by the assistance of the English, brought his government into subjection, he took the most effectual means of securing himself against their power. As the vicinity of his capital, Muxadabad, to Calcutta, gave the English factory there an opportunity of inspecting his actions, and interrupting his designs when they thought proper, he took up his residence at Mongheer, a place two hundred miles farther up the Ganges, which he fortified in the best and most expeditious manner. Sensible of the advantages of the European discipline, he now resolved to new-model his army. For this purpose he collected all the Armenian, Persian, Tartar, and other soldiers of fortune, whose military characters might serve to raise the spirits of his Indian forces, and abate their natural timidity. He also collected all the wandering Europeans who had borne arms, and the sepoys who had been dismissed from the English service, and distributed them among his troops. He changed the fashion of the Indian matchlocks to muskets, and made many excellent improvements in the discipline of his army. But it was soon discovered that all the pains taken by Meer Cossim to discipline his troops had not rendered them able to cope with the Europeans. Several acts of treacherous hostility on his part was followed by a formal declaration of war; and several engagements took place, in all of which the British army proved victorious, and Cossim's army retreated. His active enemy accordingly penetrated into the heart of his territories, crossed the numerous branches of the Ganges, and traversed morasses and forests in search of the native foe. At length the two armies met on the banks of a river called Nunas Nullas, August 2, 1763. Cossim had chosen his post with great judgment, and his forces had much of the appearance of an European army, not only in their arms and accoutrements, but in their division into brigades, and even in their clothing. The battle was more obstinate than usual, being continued for four hours: but though the Indian army consisted of no fewer than twenty thousand horse and eight thousand foot, the English proved in the end victorious, and the enemy was obliged to quit the field with the loss of all their cannon. Meer Cossim was subdued and deposed, and Meer Jaffier once more seated on the musnud. His reign was, how-

ever, very short; and on his death the council of Calcutta raised to it his son, Nujum-ud-Dowla, making him pay, as usual, a large sum for his elevation.

The high character which Lord Clive had already gained in the East justly marked him out for the government of India; and on the 3d of May, 1765, he landed, with full powers as commander-in-chief, president, and governor of Bengal. He remained in India about two years, during which period he effected the most desirable reformations in both the civil and military departments. Sujah-ad-Dowla, subahdar of Oude, and the nominal emperor of Delhi, Shah Alem II., having assisted Meer Cossim, the English marched against them. Allahabad and Lucknow were taken. The nabob was glad to purchase peace by paying the expenses of the war, and the emperor conferred upon the English the revenue of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and his imperial confirmation of all the territories conquered by them within the nominal extent of the Mogul empire. The East India Company had now acquired territory equal in extent to the most flourishing kingdom of Europe; and from this date. A. D. 1765, commences the recognized sovereignty of the English in Hindostan. It is worthy of notice that, although actually independent, the great subahdars continued to the last moment of the empire to solicit imperial firmans or patents from the court of Delhi, confirming them in the power they already possessed. In the south of India, besides the real authority in the Carnatic, the English had received the northern circars in grant from the Nizam, on condition of furnishing a body of troops in time of war. This alliance involved them in a series of contests with Hyder Ali, who had made himself sultan of the Hindu state of Mysore. The political importance acquired by the East India Company induced the government of Great Britain to claim a share in the administration of the Indian territories; and in 1773 it was determined in parliament, that all civil and military correspondence should be submitted to the king's ministers; that a supreme court of judicature should be sent out from England; and that the three presidencies should be subject to a governor-general and council, the former to be approved of by the king.

Warren Hastings, the first governor-general, found the company's finances in India much embarrassed, and a general confederation against the English in progress amongst the native powers. Notwithstanding violent opposition in his council, he conducted the government through its difficulties, repulsed Hyder, humbled the Mahrattas, and obtained from Asef-ad-Dowla, the subahdar of Oude, the zemindary of Benares. On his return to England, Warren Hastings was impeached by the house of commons for corruption and oppression, and tried before the house of lords. The trial, owing to frequent interruptions, was protracted for seven years, at the end of which he was honourably acquitted. The proceedings, however, are not necessary to be here dwelt upon, as they belong more especially to the parliamentary history of England. During his twelve years' government in India, Warren Hastings had raised the revenue to double its previous amount; but he had added twelve millions and a half to the debt of the Company.

Lord Cornwallis succeeded as governor-general in 1786. The relations between the British government and those of Lucknow and Hyderabad, were revised and strengthened; and in a war with Tippoo Saib, who had succeeded Hyder in the principality of Mysore, Lord Cornwallis defeated his armies, and besieged his capital, Seringapatam. The sultan, to obtain peace, gave up considerable territory to the British. It was under the administration of Lord Cornwallis, who was possessed of first rate qualities for this office, that the principal judicial and revenue regulations, still in force, were enacted, particularly the perpetual settlement of the revenue of Bengal with the zemindars. In 1793 Lord Cornwallis returned

to England, and was succeeded by Sir John Shore; but the pacific system of policy followed by him forfeited that consideration which the British government held in his predecessor's time amongst the native states. In 1798 he was succeeded by Lord Mornington, afterwards marquis of Wellesley. Tippoo had greatly augmented his army, and many severe battles had been fought between him and the British, but without humbling his tone, or much disminishing his power. For several years, in fact, the affairs of India had continued in a state of doubtful tranquillity. The jealousy of the British was at length justly aroused by a proclamation of the French governor of the isle of France, in 1798, which openly mentioned an alliance formed between Tippoo and the French republic for the destruction of the British power in India. The governor-general, on this, demanded an explanation of him, which being evasive and evidently intended to procrastinate our military operations, the reduction of the fort of Seringapatam was immediately resolved on. After having been repulsed, with considerable loss, in an attack of the Bombay army under General Stuart, Tippoo Saib retreated to Seringapatam. The main army, under General Harris, consisted of thirty-one thousand men, beside the Nizam's cavalry, all completely equipped: that under General Stuart was equally efficient. On the 3rd of April the army came within sight of Seringapatam, took its position on the 5th, and on the 6th the principal outposts were in possession of the British. Several letters passed, and on the 20th General Harris received an overture of peace from Tippoo, which he answered, on the 22d, with a draft of preliminaries; but the terms were too severe for the enemy to accept. On the 2d of May, therefore, the British batteries began to open, and in the course of the day a breach was made in the faussebray wall; the main rampart was shattered; and, to complete the misfortune of the besieged, a shot having struck their magazine, it blew up with a dreadful explosion. The breach being thought practicable, on the night of the 4th of May, four thousand men were stationed in the trenches before day-break. The assault was led on by General Baird, and began at one o'clock. In six minutes the forlorn hope had reached the summit of the breach, where the British colours were instantly planted. In a few minutes, the breach, which was one hundred feet wide, was crowded with men. After a short conflict the panic became general in the fort; thousands quitted it, and others laid down their arms. A flag of truce was soon after sent to the palace of the sultan, offering protection to him and his friends upon surrendering unconditionally. The young prince surrendered to General Baird, and the body of Tippoo was afterward found in the gateway of the fort, lying among heaps of slain, covered with wounds. His dominions were now partitioned among his conquerors, and the Mahrattas were admitted to a share, from motives of policy, though they had taken no part in the war. A descendant of the ancient rajahs of Mysore, about five years old, was sought out and placed on the throne with great ceremony, under certain conditions: and the sons and relations of Tippoo were removed to the Carnatic. Thus terminated one of the most important wars in which the Anglo-Indians had been ever engaged; and for some time, at least, it secured them from the re-appearance of a formidable enemy. A. D. 1799.

As the conquests of Tippoo and Hyder were retained by the British, and a subsidiary treaty had been formed with the Nizam, by which the defence of his dominions was undertaken by them upon providing for the expense, the greater part of the Deccan was now directly or indirectly subject to their authority. Arrangements were next concluded with the nabob of Oude, by which the lower part of the Douab and other countries were ceded to the British for the support of a subsidiary force. Upon these transactions followed a war with the Mahratta chiefs, Scindia, and

Ragoji Bhosla, rajah of Berar, whose armies were defeated in the south by Sir Arthur Wellesley, brother of the governor-general, and in the north by Lord Lake; and the upper part of the Douab, with Delhi and Agra, were taken possession of in the north; whilst in the south, Cuttack on the eastern, and part of the Guzerat on the western coast, were annexed to the British dominions. A war with Holkar, another Mahratta prince, followed. He made a rapid incursion into the Douab, and committed some ravages; but was pursued by Lord Lake to the Sikh country, and all his territories occupied by a British force. The whole, however, was restored to him at the peace.

In 1805 Lord Wellesley was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis, again appointed governor-general. His policy was of a pacific character; and upon his death, soon after his arrival in India, it was adopted by his temporary successor, Sir George Barlow. Lord Minto arrived in India in 1807. His attention was chiefly directed to the subjugation of the remaining possessions of the French in the East; and the Isle of France and Mauritius, and the large island of Java, were subdued by armaments fitted out in India. At the end of 1813 the marquis of Hastings arrived as governor-general. The determination of his predecessors to abstain from interference with the native states had been attended with deplorable dissensions among themselves, and had encouraged them to commit outrages on the British dominions, the repressal of which soon led to active warfare. On the northern frontier the conduct of the Ghorka government of Nepaul having provoked hostilities, the Himalaya was traversed by the British armies, and an extensive tract of mountain country permanently annexed to the state. The aggressions of the Pindarees, a set of freebooters, secretly supported by the Mahratta princes, were next punished by the annihilation of their hordes. In 1814 these bands comprised about forty thousand horse, and they subsisted wholly on plunder. In the course of operations against them, the peishwa and the rajah of Nagpore attempted, by treachery and murder, to rid themselves of British control; and hostilities ensued, which placed the territories and persons of both princes in the hands of their enemies, A. D. 1818. The Pindarees were at first bodies of mercenary horse, serving different princes for hire during war, and in time of peace subsisting upon plunder. Lands along the Nerbuddah had been assigned to some of their leaders by the princes of Malwa; and from hence they occasionally made incursions into the British provinces, devastating the country in the most ferocious manner, and disappearing before a force could be assembled against them. It was resolved, however, in the year 1817, to hunt them to their native holds, and either exterminate or drive them from the position which they occupied, in the centre of India. By the end of the rainy season of that year, a numerous army took the field for this purpose. The plan was, that the armies of the different presidencies should advance southward, and gradually converging to a common centre, hem in, on every side, the territory of the robbers. This was at length effected; the greater part of them being destroyed, and the rest humbled to submission.

Upon the re-establishment of peace, Puna, and part of the Mahratta territories, were retained, and the rest restored to the rajah of Satara. Appa Saib, the rajah of Nagpore, who had escaped from confinement, was deposed, and a grandson of the former rajah elevated to the throne. Holkar, a youth, was taken under the British protection, which was also extended to the Rajput princes. By these arrangements the whole of Hindostan was brought under the power or control of the British government. In 1823 the marquis of Hastings quitted his government, leaving British India in a proud and prosperous condition. At the end of the same year Lord Amherst arrived from England. In 1824 war broke out

with the Burmese, who had for many years given much trouble on the eastern frontier. An expedition was sent to Rangoon, which, in the second year of hostilities, advanced nearly to Ava, the capital; and the Burman government was glad to purchase peace in 1826 by the cession of Assam, Aracan, and the Tenasserim provinces. The beginning of the same year was signalized by the capture of Bhurtpore, a strong fortress in Upper India. The more recent events in British India will be found given as fully as limits would permit, in the latter portion of the history of England.

THE HISTORY OF PERSIA.

The limits of this most ancient and celebrated empire have been variously stated; but its original name was Elam, so called from the son of Shem, whose descendants were its first inhabitants. In the books of Daniel, Esdras, &c., it is called by the names of Pars or Pharas, whence the modern name of Persia; but from what those names were derived is now uncertain. From the accounts of those who have most studied the subject it would appear that the ancient kingdom of Persia was situated more to the east and north-east than the present; whence, until its authority extended over Media and Assyria, it was but little known to the nations of Europe. It is sometimes spoken of as the kingdom of Bactria, from Bahlica, or Balkh, its capital; but is termed by oriental writers, Iran. The country beyond it constituting modern Tartary, the Scythia of the ancients, is called by the orientals, Turan; and between these two, Iran and Turan, collisions were frequent in early times.

The history of Persia first emerges from the obscurity of antiquity with Cyrus. Hystaspes, the Median Cyaxares, or his contemporary, under whom Zoroaster lived, belongs to the uncertain time before Cyrus. With Cyrus (559—529 B. C.) began the period of Persian power in the west. By uniting the Persians and Medes under the sceptre, he made them the ruling nation in western Asia; he conquered Crœsus, took Babylon, and reduced Asia Minor. Although the history of Cyrus is very obscure, it is certain that he not only founded a vast empire, but established it by his genius and valour. He defeated the Babylonians, together with all their numerous allies, at the famous battle of Thymbra; overturned the monarchy, and made himself master of Babylon. He afterward considerably extended his conquests; and the boundary of his vast empire was the river Indus on the east, the Caspian and Euxine seas on the north, the Ægean Sea on the west, and the Ætolia, with the Arabian or Persian Gulf, on the south. Although his character has been given to us very differently by Xenophon and Herodotus, it must be allowed, upon the whole, that he was both a powerful and a worthy prince. He introduced a new discipline into his army; and furnished them with weapons for close combat instead of bows and arrows, which contributed in a great measure toward his extraordinary success. Having settled the civil government of the conquered kingdoms, and restored the Jews to their own land, Cyrus took a review of his forces, which he found to consist of six hundred thousand foot, one hundred and twenty thousand horse, and two thousand chariots armed with scythes. With these he extended his do-

minion over all the nations to the confines of Ethiopia and to the Red Sea; after which he continued to reign peaceably over his vast empire till his death, which happened about 529 B. C.

Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyses (529—522), who conquered Tyre, Cyprus, and Egypt. After him a Magian ruled for a short time, who gave himself out as Smerdis, brother of Cambyses. He was dethroned, and Darius Hystaspes obtained the crown by lot, or the choice of his colleagues (521—487 B. C.) He reduced the revolted kingdom of Babylon, and subdued Thrace, Macedonia, and a small part of India; but his attempt to conquer the Scythians beyond the Danube was unsuccessful. He reduced the Greek colonies in Asia Minor, which had attempted to shake off the Persian yoke (501 B. C.); but he was unfortunate in his war against the European Greeks, and Egypt revolted from him. His son Xerxes (487—467 B. C.) effected the submission of Egypt, but was defeated by the Greeks on the field of Marathon and at Salamis, and was obliged to defend himself against their attacks in a disastrous war.

Under Artaxerxes Longimanus, (the *Ahasuerus* of Scripture), the first symptoms of decline became visible. Egypt again revolted, and was again conquered, after a bloody struggle. The Greek war terminated disadvantageously, in 449 B. C.; and Megabyzus excited a dangerous insurrection. The next changes of government were rapid and violent. Xerxes II., his only legitimate son, was murdered, after a reign of forty-five days, by his natural brother, Sogdianus, who suffered the same fate six months afterward, by the hands of another illegitimate son of Artaxerxes—Ochus, who assumed the name of Darius II., and reigned until 404 B.C., under the influence of his wife Parysatis. The revolts of his satraps hastened the decline of the empire, and the Persians were obliged to acknowledge independent kings in Egypt. But the internal troubles in Greece, of which the Persians artfully took advantage, saved them, for a time, from a united attack by the Greeks. Artaxerxes (or Mnemon) was entirely subservient to the will of his mother, Parysatis. His brother Cyrus, who had been made governor of Asia Minor, supported by ten thousand Greeks, under Xenophon, attempted to dethrone him, (400 B. C.), but he was defeated and killed. Domestic dissensions obliged the Lacedæmonians to abandon their advantages in Asia Minor, and to conclude the disadvantageous peace of Antalcidas (387 B. C.) The army of Cyrus comprised a body of Greek mercenaries, who, after the death of the prince, effected their retreat through the heart of Persia, in defiance of all attempts to cut them off. A particular account of this has been given by their commander, Xenophon, and is known as "the retreat of the ten thousand."

Artaxerxes III. secured his throne by putting to death his numerous brothers. He re-established the Persian supremacy over Phœnicia and Egypt, but was a luxurious and cruel prince. After a reign of twenty-three years, he was poisoned by his minister, Bagoas, an Egyptian, in revenge for the indignities he had heaped on the religion of his country. Bagoas then gave the crown to Darius Codomanus, a prince of the blood, who was conquered by Alexander in three decisive actions, on the Granicus, at Issus, and at Arbela, and lost his life (330 B. C.); after which Alexander made himself master of the whole empire. After the battle of Arbela, Alexander took and plundered Persepolis, whence he marched into Media, in pursuit of Darius, who had fled to Ecbatana, the capital. This prince had still an army of thirty thousand foot, among which were four thousand Greeks, who continued faithful to the last. Besides these he had four thousand slingers and three thousand horse, most of them Bactrians, commanded by Bessus. When Darius heard that Alexander had marched to Ecbatana, he retired into Bactria, with a design to raise another army; but soon after he determined to venture a battle with the forces he

still had left. On this, Bessus, governor of Bactria, and Nabarzanes, a Persian lord, formed a conspiracy to seize his person, and, if Alexander pursued them, to gain his friendship by betraying their master into his hands; but if they escaped their design was to murder him, and usurp the crown. The troops were easily gained over; but Darius himself, when informed of their proceedings, and solicited to trust his person among the Greeks, could not give credit to the report. The consequence was, that he was in a few days seized by traitors; who bound him with golden chains, and shutting him up in a covered cart, fled with him to Bactria. After a most extraordinary march in pursuit of Darius, Alexander was informed that the Persian monarch was in the custody of Bessus and Nabarzanes, and that he himself was within one day's march of the conspirators, whom, indeed, he soon afterward overtook, marching in great confusion. His unexpected appearance struck them, though far superior in number, with such terror, that they immediately fled; and, because Darius refused to follow them, Bessus, and those who were about him, discharged their darts at the unfortunate prince, leaving him wallowing in his blood. After this they all fled different ways, and were pursued by the Macedonians with great slaughter.

In the meantime, the horses that drew the cart in which Darius was shut up, stopped; for the drivers had been previously killed by Bessus; and Polystratus, a Macedonian, being distressed with thirst, was directed by the inhabitants to a fountain near the place. As he was filling his helmet with water, he heard the groans of a dying man; and, looking round him, discovered a cart with a team of wounded horses, unable to move. Approaching it, he perceived Darius lying in the cart, and having several darts in his body. He had enough of strength, however, left to call for water, which Polystratus brought him; and, after drinking, he turned to the Macedonian, and with a faint voice told him, that, in the deplorable state to which he was reduced, it was no small comfort to him that his last words would not be lost: he then charged him to return his hearty thanks to Alexander for the kindness he had shown to his wife and family, and to acquaint him, that, with his last breath, he besought the gods to prosper him, and make him sole monarch of the world. He added, that it did not so much concern him as Alexander to pursue and bring to condign punishment those traitors who had treated their lawful sovereign with such cruelty. Then taking Polystratus by the hand, "Give Alexander your hand," said he, "as I give you mine, and carry him, in my name, the only pledge I am able to give, in this condition, of my gratitude and affection." Having uttered these words, he expired in the arms of Polystratus. Alexander coming up a few minutes after, bewailed his death, and caused his body to be interred with the highest honours. The traitor Bessus being at last reduced to extreme difficulties, was delivered up by his own men, naked and bound, into the hands of the Macedonians; on which Alexander gave him to Oxyathres, the brother of Darius, to suffer what punishment he should think proper. The manner of it is thus described by Plutarch:—Several trees being by main force bent down to the ground, and one of the traitor's limbs being tied to each of them, the trees, as they were suffered to return to their natural position, flew back with such violence that each carried with it a limb. Thus ended the ancient empire of Persia, two hundred and nine years after it had been founded by Cyrus, and leaving Alexander its sovereign, B.C. 329.

On the dissolution of the Macedonian empire, after the death of Alexander (323), the Seleucides ruled over Persia until 246 B. C. They were succeeded by the Arsacides, who founded the empire of the Parthians, which existed until 229 A. D. Ardeshir Babegan (Artaxerxes) then obtained the sovereignty of Central Asia, and left it to his descendants, the Sassanides, who ruled four hundred and seven years. With them begins,

according to Hammer, the romantic character of Persian chivalry; and the six most renowned rulers of this dynasty, among whom are Behramgur, Chosroes, Parwis, and Nushirvan, are the subjects of Persian romances. Ardeshir, son of Sassan, ruled from 218 to 241. The wars which he carried on with the Romans were continued under his successor, Sapor I., against Gordian and Valerian (the latter of whom fell into the hands of Sapor, and was treated in a most revolting manner), and were not terminated until the peace of Narses with Diocletian (303). When Sapor the Great had become of full age, the empire again recovered strength. He punished the Arabs for their incursions, and took the king of Yemen prisoner; and demanded from the emperor of Constantinople the cession of all the country to the Strymon, as Ardeshir had once done. Constantine the Great, Constantine II., and Julian resisted his demands; but Jovian purchased peace by a cession of the five provinces in question and the fortress of Nisibis. Sapor also extended his conquests into Tartary and India. War and peace successively followed, without any important events, after the death of Sapor.

Under Artaxerxes II., Sapor III., and Vararanes IV. (until 399), the empire flourished. Arabs, Huns and Turks successively appeared on the field, as the allies or enemies of Persia. Yezdegerd I., a friend of the Christians, conquered Armenia in 412. In the year 420, Vararanes V. ascended the throne by the aid of the Arabs. He was victorious against Theodosius II., defeated the Huns who had invaded his empire, and conquered the kingdom of Yemen. He was succeeded by Vararanes VI., and Hormisdas III. In the year 457, Firoz (Pheroses) ascended the throne by the assistance of the Huns; bnt afterward made war against them, and lost his life in battle, in 483. Valens, or Balash, was stripped of a part of his territories by the Huns, and obliged to pay them a tribute for two years. The Sassanides, however, soon regained their greatness and power. Kobad subdued the Huns; and though he had recovered his throne, in 498, by their assistance, yet, at a later period, he waged a successful war against them, against Athanasius, the Indians, and Justinian I.

His youngest son and successor, Chosrou Nushirvan, was distinguished for his uncommon wisdom and valour. Under him the Persian empire extended from the Mediterranean to the Indus, from the Iaxartes to Arabia and the confines of Egypt. He waged successful wars with Indians and Turks, with Justinian and Tiberius, and with the Arabs, whom he delivered from the oppression of petty tyrants: he also suppressed the rebellions of his brother and son. The Lazians in Colchis, wearied with Greek oppression, submitted themselves to him; but, when he attempted to transfer them into the interior of Persia, they again placed themselves under the dominion of Justinian, whose arms were now victorious. Nushirvan died of grief during the negotiations for peace. War continued under Hormuz (Hormisdas IV.), until the reign of Chosrou II., under whom the Persian power reached its highest pitch. By successful wars he extended his conquests, on the one side to Chalcedon (616), on the other over Egypt to Lydia and Æthiopia, and finally to Yemen. But the fortune of war was suddenly changed by the victorious arms of the emperor Heraclius. Chosrou lost all his conquests, and his own son Sirhes made him prisoner, and put him to death (628). The decline of Persia was hastened by continued domestic feuds. Sirhes, or Kabad Shirujeh, was murdered in the same year. His son Ardeshir (Artaxerxes III). but seven years old, succeeded him, and was murdered, in 629, by his general Serbas (Sheheriar). The chief Persians prevented Serbas from ascending the throne: and after numerous revolutions succeeding each other so rapidly that historians have confounded the names, Yezdegerd III., a nephew of Chosrou, ascended the throne in 632, at the age of sixteen. He

was attacked by the caliph Omar, in 636, and Persia became a prey to the Arabs and Turks. Yezdegerd lost his life in 651.

With the conquest of Persia by the caliphs begins the history of the modern Persian empire. The dominion of the Arabs lasted five hundred and eighty-five years, from 636 to 1220. As some of the Arab governors made themselves independent, and Persian and Turkish princes possessed themselves of single provinces, Persia continued to be divided into numerous petty states. Among the principal dynasties were, in the north and north-east, 1. The Turkish house of the Thaheridis in Khorasan, from 820 to 872;—2. The Persian dynasty of the Soffarides, which dethroned the one last named, and ruled over Khorasan and Farsistan until 902;—3. The Samanide dynasty, which established its independence on Khorasan in 874, under Ahmed, in the province Mavaralnar, and lasted to 999. Ishmael, Ahmed's son, dethroned the Soffarides, and became powerful: and under his descendants originated,—4. The Gaznavides, in 977, when Sebektechin, a Turkish slave and governor of the Samanides at Gazna and Khorasan, made himself independent at Gazna. His son Mahmoud subdued, in 999, Khorasan, and in 1012, Farsistan, and thus put an end to the dominion of the Samanides. He subsequently conquered Irak Agemi (1017) from the Bouides, and even extended his conquests into India. But his son Masud was stripped of Irak Agemi and Khorasan by the Seljooks (from 1037 to 1044); and the Gaznavides, weakened by domestic divisions, became, under Malek Shah (1182), a prey to the Gourides;—1. The sultans of Gour (Gourides) became powerful in 1150, by means of Aladdin Hosain, but lost their ascendency, after several important reigns, partly by the encroachments of the princes of Khowaresm, and partly by domestic dissensions;—6. The dynasty of the Khowaresmian Shahs (1097 to 1230) was founded by Aziz, governor of the Seljooks in Khowasresm, or Karasm, where he rendered himself independent. Tagash (1192) destroyed the empire of the Seljooks, and took Khorasan from the Gourides. His son Mohammed conquered Mavaralnar, subdued the Gourides and Gazna, and occupied the greater part of Persia. But, in 1220, the great khan of the Monguls, Genghis Khan and his heroic son Gelaleddin Mankbern, deprived him of his dominions; and he died in 1230, after a struggle of ten years, in a lonely hut in the mountains of Kurdistan. In western and north-eastern Persia reigned—7. Mardawig, a Persian warrior, who founded a kingdom at Dilem, in 928, which soon extended over Ispahan, but was soon destroyed by the Bouides;—8. The Bouides (sons of Bouia, a poor fisherman, who derived his origin from the Sassanides), by their valour and prudence, extended their sway over the greater part of Persia, and in 945, even over Bagdad. They were chiefly distinguished for their virtues and love of science, and maintained themselves until 1056, when Malek Rahjm was obliged to yield to the Seljooks;—9. The Seljooks, a Turkish dynasty, as is supposed, driven by the Chinese from Turkestan, first became powerful in Khorasan, with the Gaznavides. Togrulbeg Mahmoud, a brave and prudent warrior, drove out the son of Mahmoud, the Gaznavide sultan, in 1037; extended his dominion over Mavaralnar, Aderbijan, Armenia, Farsistan, Irak Agemi, and Irak Arabi, where he put an end to the rule of the Bouides at Bagdad, in 1055, and was invested with their dignity, as Emir el Omrah, by the caliphs. Some of his descendants were distinguished for great activity and humanity. The most powerful of them, Melak Shah, conquered also Georgia, Syria, and Natolia. But the empire gradually declined, and was divided into four kingdoms, which was destroyed by the shahs of Khowaresm, the atabeks of Aleppo, and the Monguls.

Ghengis Khan established the power of the Tartars and Monguls in Persia (1120—1405.) Those Persian provinces which had been acquired by Genghis Khan fell to his younger son, Tauli, in 1229, and then to the

son of the latter, Hulaku, at first as governors of the Mongolian khans, Kajuk and Mangu. Hulaku extended his dominion over Syria, Natolia, and Irak Arabi. He or his successor became independent of the great khan, and formed a separate Mongolian dynasty in those countries, and sat on the throne till the death of Abusaid, without heirs, in 1335. His successors, also descendants of Genghis Khan, had merely the title of khans of Persia. The empire was weak and divided. Then appeared (1387), Timurlenk (Tamerlane), at the head of a new horde of Monguls, who conquered Persia, and filled the world, from Hindostan to Smyrna, with terror. But the death of this famous conqueror was followed by the downfall of the Mongul dominion in Persia, of which the Turkomans then remained masters for a hundred years. These nomadic tribes, who had plundered Persia for two centuries, wrested, under the reign of Kara Jussuf and his successors, the greatest part of Persia from the Timurides, were subdued by other Turkoman tribes under Usong Hassan (1468), and incorporated with them. They sunk before Ismail Sophi (1505), who artfully made use of fanaticism for his political purposes, and whose dynasty lasted from 1505 to 1722.

Ismail Sophi, whose ancestor, Sheikh Sophi, pretended to be descended from Ali, took from the Turkomans of the white ram, Aderbijan and part of Armenia, slew their princes, and founded upon the ruins of their empire, after having conquered Shirvan, Diarbeker, Georgia, Turkestan, and Mavaralnar, another, which comprised Aderbijan, Diarbeker, Georgia, Turkestan, and Mavaralnar, an empire which comprised Aderbijan, Diarbeker, Irak, Farsistan, and Kerman. He assumed the name of a shah, and introduced the sect of Ali into the conquered countries. His successors, Thamas, Ishmael II., Mahommed, Hamzeh, and Ishmael III. (from 1523 to 1587), carried on unsuccessful wars against the Turks and the Usbecks. But Shah Abbas the Great (1587 to 1629, re-established the empire by his conquests. He took from the Turks Armenia, Irak Arabi, Mesopotamia, the cities of Tauris, Bagdad and Bassora; Khorasan from the Usbecks; Ormuz from the Portuguese, and Kandahar from the Monguls; and humbled Georgia, which had refused to pay tribute. He introduced absolute power into Persia, transferred his residence to Ispahan, and instituted the pilgrimage to Meshid, in order to abolish that to Mecca among the Persians.

The following rulers, Shah Saffi and Abbas II. (from 1629 to 1666), had new wars with the Turks and Indians; with the former on account of Bagdad, which was lost; and with the latter on account of Kandahar, which was reconquered in 1660. Under Shah Solyman, however, (1666 to 1694), the empire declined, and entirely sunk under his son Hussein. The Affghans in Kandahar revolted, in 1709, under Mirweis; and his son Mir Mahmud conquered the whole empire, in 1722. A state of anarchy followed. Mahmud having become insane, was dethroned by Asharf in 1725; the latter was subdued by Thamas Kuli Khan, who with the assistance of the Russians and Turks, placed Thamas, son of Hussein, on the throne in 1729. But when the latter ceded Georgia and Armenia to the Turks, Kuli Khan dethroned him, and placed his minor son, Abbas III., on the throne. He recovered, by conquest or treaties, the provinces ceded to the Russians and Turks, and ascended the throne under the title of *Nadir Shah*, Abbas III. having died in 1736. He restored Persia to her former importance by successful wars and a strong government. The booty carried off by Nadir has been estimated at seventy millions sterling. The emperor and all the principal noblemen were obliged to make up the sum demanded, with their jewels and richest furniture. Among the most remarkable of the latter articles was the throne of the emperors of Delhi, made in the shape of a peacock, and richly ornamented with precious stones. After his return from India, Nadir subdued the northern

kingdoms of Khwarasm and Bokhara, and settled at Meshed, which he made his capital; entertaining suspicions of his eldest son, he had his eyes put out, and remorse for the crime made him frantically ferocious. Vast numbers of people, of every rank, fell victims to his rage, until some of his officers conspired against, and assassinated him, A. D. 1747.

The death of Nadir Shah was followed by a period of confusion. Ahmed Shah, one of his officers, seized upon Khorasan and Cabul, and established the kingdom of the Affghans. Mohammed Husein Khan, a Persian chief, occupied the eastern shore of the Caspian; and Ali, the nephew of Nadir, was for a short time king of Persia. Four kingdoms were now formed: 1, Khorasan and Segistan; 2, Kandahar, or the eastern provinces; 3, Farsistan, or the western provinces; and, 4, Georgia. The latter, for the most part, retained its own princes, who at length submitted to Russia. In Kandahar and the East, Ahmed Abdallah founded the empire of Affghanistan. He was victorious at Panniput, and ruled with absolute sway in India. His residence was Cabul. He was succeeded in 1753 by Timur; the latter by Zeman. In the two other kingdoms the Curd Kerim Khan, who had served under Nadir, and was of low extraction, succeeded in establishing tranquillity, after long and bloody wars, by subduing Mohammed Khan, who fled, and perished at Mazanderan. His wisdom, justice, and warlike skill gained him the love of his subjects and the esteem of his neighbours. He did not call himself *khan* but *vekil* (regent.) He fixed his residence at Shiraz in 1765, and died in 1779. New disturbances arose after his death. His brothers attempted to get possession of the throne, to the exclusion of his sons. A prince of the blood, Ali Murat, occupied it in 1784; but a eunuch, Aga Mohammed, a man of ancient family and uncommon abilities, had made himself independent in Mazanderan. Ali Murat, who marched against him, died in consequence of a fall from his horse, and left the sceptre to his son Yafar, who was defeated by Aga Mohammed at Jezd Kast, and fled to Shiraz, where he perished in an insurrection. His son Luthf Ali made several desperate efforts to recover his throne; but Aga Mohammed was victorious, and appointed his nephew Baba Khan his successor, who reigned under the name of Feth Ali Shah. He fixed his residence at Teheran, in order to be nearer the Russians, who threatened him in Georgia and the neighbouring provinces.

By the peace of 1812, the Persians were obliged to cede to Russia the whole of Daghestan, the Khanats of Kuba, Shirvan, Baku, Salian, Talishah, Karaachb, and Gandsha, resigning all claims to Shularegi, Kharthli, Kachethi, Imeritia, Guria, Mingrelia and Abchasia, and were obliged to admit the Russian flag on the Caspian Sea. Feth Ali (born in 1768), a Turkoman of the tribe of Kadshar Shah, was induced by the heir-apparent, Abbas Mirza, and his favourite, Hussein Kuli Khan, who believed Russia to be involved in domestic troubles, to attack that power in 1826. The Persians invaded the Russian territories, without a declaration of war, instigated part of the Mohammedan population to insurrection, and advanced as far as Elizabethpol; but they were defeated in several battles, and the Russians under Paskewitch conquered the country to the Araxes, which, by the treaty of Tourkmantchai, in 1829, was ceded to Russia.

On the death of Futteh Ali Shah, in 1835, his grandson, the present sovereign, son of the prince-royal, Abbas Mirza, succeeded to the throne, and, profiting by the dear-bought experience of his predecessor, is understood to be favourable to the interests of Russia, or, what is more likely, considers it prudent to keep on good terms with a neighbour who has it so much in his power to injure him. The late Abbas Mirza had, with the consent of the East India Company, raised and disciplined a body of troops in Azerbijan, with a view of opposing the Russians; but on the

commencement of the war with Turkey in 1822, as British officers could not serve against a power on friendly terms with Great Britain, they were dismissed; but the regular Persian army marched against the Russians, and were successful until they were disabled by the cholera. Yet it is clear that their army is still very inefficient, compared with what it formerly was; for when, in 1837, Mohammed Mirza, the present shah, made every effort to bring a large force against Herat, the besieging army did not exceed thirty-five thousand men of every description, which was considerably less than half the number of efficient troops engaged with the Russians in the previous war.

The Greeks greatly interested themselves to learn the manners, the laws, and the form of government of the Persians, and found that they adored the sun and moon; they erected neither temple nor altar, nor statue, to their gods. Their Magi were their sages and their priests. They held at Babylon a solemn feast to Venus. The kings and lords of Persia kept a great number of concubines; and such was their jealousy, that not only the sight of them was forbidden to all persons without the seraglio, but every one of them was separated and confined under a strong guard. The king of Persia assumed the title of the Great King. His authority, however, was not without bounds; the important business of the nation was debated in a sovereign council, composed of seven principal lords, who always accompanied the prince. The Greeks observed among the Persians a great attention to justice, the king frequently rendering it himself to his subjects, and not confiding in any instance this material duty of the prince but to such persons as were profoundly learned in the law, and who could not attain the eminence of the judgment-seat under the age of fifty years. The lives of slaves did not altogether depend on the will of their masters; and the pain of death could not be pronounced against them for their first fault. This empire, according to the best information, was divided into one hundred and twenty-seven governments. The lords who presided over them were called satraps (similar to viceroys of our day), to whom the king assigned a considerable revenue. Agriculture was particularly honoured by the Persians; there was in every district officers appointed by the state to overlook the cultivation of the earth. The conquered nations supported the expenses of the state, the Persians themselves being exempt from every tax and impost.

The present government of Persia is an absolute monarchy: but the right of succession, as in ancient times, and as in all Asiatic monarchies, is undefined, and generally rests with the strongest, whence a perpetual recurrence of bloodshed and anarchy arises. The religion is Mahommedan, and the Persians are zealous followers of the Sheah persuasion, or those who look upon Ali, the son-in-law of the prophet, as his legitimate successor. The people consist of four classes; the first are the native tribes, who live in tents, and are migratory with the seasons—as the Zend, Affshar, and others; the second are similar tribes, of Mongol or Turkoman origin, settled in the country, of which the Kajar, or royal tribe, is one; the third are the inhabitants of the towns, and those of the country who follow agriculture; and the fourth are Arab tribes, who occupy the country toward the Persian Gulf.

When the Arabs overran Persia, about the middle of the seventh century, three languages were spoken in the country, Parsee, Pehlvi, and Deri, exclusive of the Zend, or language dedicated to religion. The Persians make high claims to ancient literature; but the greater part of that which escaped destruction in the time of Alexander, was destroyed under the caliphs. Persian civilization declined during the first period of the Arabian dominion. But learning revived in Persia in the time of the Abassides, and learned men and poets were encouraged by personal fa-

vours and distinctions, till the time of Genghis Khan, in the thirteenth century. Under Timur, in the fourteenth century, and the Turks in the fifteenth, it continually declined, and in the sixteenth was almost entirely extinct. The oppressions and disturbances to which Persia has since been continually subject, have prevented the revival of learning. No oriental nation possesses richer literary treasures of the earlier periods, particularly in poetry and history; but their acquaintance with useful science or the fine arts, is most crude and limited indeed.

ARABIA.

The history of the Arabians, called by some "the children of the east," is one of an unstable, but interesting people. Connected with the early portions of the Sacred History, and reflecting strong evidences of the truth of that history, we find in its annals the descendants of the patriarchs. Ishmael and Esau, in particular, throw an interest over the map of this country, and carry us back to that era when the hope of the promised seed was the star of guidance to the chosen family. Various are the tribes that peopled this country; from three of these the present Arabians are supposed to be descended—two of them from the race of Ishmael, and the third from Cush, the son of Ham. Of the early history of these wandering people, it may be truly said, in the language of Scripture, respecting Ishmael, "he has been a wild man; his hand has been against every man, and every man's hand has been against him." In vain have the respective powers of the successive empires of the world attacked this wonderful people. The Egyptians, the Greeks, the Persians, the Romans, especially the conqueror of Jerusalem, have in turn failed in their gigantic efforts to subdue them. Their subjugation has never been effected; they occupy the same seats, cultivate the same soil, and retain very much the old habits and customs of their patriarchal founders.

The religion of the early Arabs partook to a considerable extent, of that of the Hebrews, but so far from being strict observers of the laws of Moses, they came under the denomination of idolaters, for, although they acknowledged one supreme God, they worshipped the sun, moon, and stars as subordinate deities. This religion has been called Sabianism, from Sabi, a supposed son of Seth. The Arabs also worshipped images, and had their tutelary guardians for appointed times and seasons of the year. After the destruction of Jerusalem, by Titus, many of the Jews took refuge in Arabia, where they made no inconsiderable number of proselytes; so that, in a century or two, the Jewish Arabs became a very powerful section of the whole people. In a similar way, converts to Christianity were made; for in the persecution which the followers of Christ suffered in the third century, many fled to Arabia, where they preached their doctrines with such zeal and success, that in a short time they had made great progress there. The faith of the Persian Magi, of which Zoroaster was the founder, had long before been embraced by numerous Arab tribes; so that, in the sixth century, the population of Arabia was divided into Sabians, Magians, Jews, and Christians. As the propagator of a new code of religion, falsely ascribed to divine revela-

tion, the celebrated Mahomet stands conspicuous in their annals. Amongst them he made many converts, and his successors have for centures maintained the ascendancy he founded. Of this extraordinary man, however, and the successful mission he undertook, it is not necessary here to enter into the details; having specially devoted a considerable space to an account of the rise and progress of Mahometanism, at the conclusion of our historic sketch of the Ottoman empire—to which the reader can turn for further information.

In many respects this new religion was but little more than an adaptation of various parts of the religions previously existing in Arabia (if we except the idolatrous worship of the Sabian); the people in general, therefore, were in some measure fitted to receive it; and, when the sensual character of the Mohammedan paradise is considered, its rapid promulgation is less surprising than would otherwise at first sight appear. But, besides the delights which were to attend upon all who perished in battle in the cause of the "true faith," he made it incumbent upon all his followers to spread his doctrine by the sword, or to pay tribute for their unbelief. The attractions of plunder had charms which the Arabs could not withstand, consequently great numbers flocked to his standard. No caravan dared approach the place of his resort, without the danger of being pillaged; and by making a trade of robbing, he learned insensibly how to conquer. Of his soldiers, and even his vanquished enemies, he made disciples, giving to them the name of Mussulmen; that is to say, faithful. Having now become a great general, and an eloquent preacher, he took Mecca; and the greater part of the strong places and castles of Arabia fell under the power of his arms.

Mahomet was assisted in his wars by Abubeker, his father-in-law; by Ali, his cousin and son-in-law; and by Omar, and Othman; and in twenty-three years from the commencement of his career, he found all Arabia had embraced his doctrine, and submitted to his government. He intended Ali, who had married his daughter Fatima, as his successor; but Abubeker, on account of his age, and by the interest of Omar and Othman, was chosen. This election of Abubeker gave birth to the schisms and civil wars which followed. The successors of Mahomet took the title of caliphs, or vicars of the prophet. Full of that fire or zeal which generally accompanies and inspires a new religion, they spread into different countries their doctrine and their power. Persia and Greece were among the first to suffer; Damascus, Antioch, and Syria followed. They then penetrated into Palestine, and took Jerusalem. They destroyed entirely the monarchies of Persia and the Medes of Korasan, of Diarbeck, of Bactriana, and Mesopotamia: nor was their progress less successful in Africa; they subdued all the coast to the west of Egypt; and Egypt itself submitted to their government, together with the islands of Cyprus, Rhodes, Candia, Sicily, Malta, and many others.

It appears that in Asia and Africa, at different times, there were upwards of fifty caliphs, successors of Mahomet, every one of whom pretended to be his descendant, and the true interpreter of the law. The greater part of these caliphs sunk into luxury and effeminacy, confided the management of the government to their emirs, and the principal officers of the palace. The caliph had at last little more to do than to take cognizance of matters of religion, and in all public prayers his name was first used. Thus had the enormous power of these rulers become weak by their indolence, so that it generated into a mere title, and ended in annihilation. By imposture and fanaticism the Arabian dominion rose into importance, and, like other gigantic empires, it fell by its own unwieldiness. Spain, Egypt, and Africa were soon engaged in effecting their independence. Ere long the caliphs found it necessary to call to their aid those wild hordes of Tartars and Turks who had partially received the doctrines

of the prophet, and from them they chose a body of mercenary troops to guard their frontiers and protect their persons. For a few generations they by this means held together their tottering power; but their auxiliaries coveted the possessions of those whom they assisted, and the overgrown empire gradually crumbled away, till a Tartar army, in 1258, captured Bagdad, and put an end to the nominal existence of the caliphate. The religion of Mahomet was untouched; but the power of the "commander of the faithful," was transferred from the caliphs of Bagdad to the Turkish sultans; while the heads of the different tribes continued to govern their subjects as they had governed them before.

In the eighteenth century, a reformation was commenced by a sheik, called Mahomet Ibu Abdoulwahab, who converted to his views the sheik of the Arabians, Ebn Saaoud. The reformation was extended, and its progress was marked by the demolition of several towns, and the massacre of thousands of people. The son of the Saaoud, Abdelaagis, sent an expedition against Mecca, which he completely destroyed, excepting the sacred temple. He captured also Medina, where he was assassinated—a deed which his son, Saaoud, avenged by seizing the accumulated treasures of ages stored in that city, by means of which he made himself master of all Arabia.

THE HISTORY OF CHINA.

CHAPTER I.

There is probably no existing nation whose history is less accurately known or more inquisitively sought after, than that of China. The most startling statements as to the antiquity of the nation, and the number of its population, have been gravely put into circulation by grave writers, as though the "omne ignotum pro magnifico" were not a satirical remark, but a philosophical command. More, probably, of authentic information upon the subject of this singular people has been acquired during the last half century, than during the whole lapse of the preceding ages. Marco Polo and Du Halde, subjected as they now are to the correction of Dr. Morrison, Gutzlaff, Latrobe, and other able European *residents* in China, may safely be taken as our guide, though were they not thus corrected, they would lead into frequent and very gross error. The Chinese writers pretend to trace back their government to a period anterior to the Flood; a ridiculous absurdity which we should not feel called upon to notice, but that European writers have, without going to the full extent of Chinese extravagance, admitted their existence as a nation considerably more than two thousand years before Christ. Its early history, indeed, like that of most other nations of any considerable antiquity, seems to be an imaginative distortion of a few truths, mixed up with a vast number of bare and mere fictions. Their founder and first monarch they affirm to have been Fohi, who is presumed by many writers to have been the same with Noah. The eastern mountains of Asia they take to be the Ararat of Scripture; and they assert that, as the waters subsided, [illegible] llowed the course of the rivers to the south until he arrived at [illegible], where,

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being much struck with the beauty and fertility of the land, he eventually settled.

As the Chinese, contrary to the practice of almost all nations, have rarely, if ever, sought to conquer other countries, their annals for many ages furnish nothing remarkable; and although they date the origin of their imperial dynasties (excluding those of the fabulous times) two thousand years before the Christian era, we find that the country was long divided into several states or independent sovereignties. Twenty-two dynasties of princes are enumerated as having governed China from 2207 B. C., to the present day, the reigning emperor being the fifth monarch of the twenty-second or Tai-Tsin dynasty. What may be termed the authentic history of China does not begin till the time of Confucius, who flourished about five centuries before the Christian era, and who must be regarded as the great reformer of China. He endeavoured to unite in one great confederation the numerous states which harassed each other by mutual wars, and constructed a moral code for the government of the people. He forbore to dive into the impenetrable arcana of nature; neither did he bewilder himself in abstruse researches on the essence and attributes of a Deity, but confined himself to speaking with the most profound reverence of the First Principle of all beings, whom he represented as the most pure and perfect Essence, the Author of all things, who is acquainted with our most secret thoughts, and who will never permit virtue to go unrecompensed, nor vice unpunished. It is not until B. C. 248 that Chinese history begins to be at all developed. Che-Hwang-te, the founder of the Tsin dynasty, in that year succeeded to the throne, and the petty princes of China, as well as the Huns who inhabited the immense plains beyond the Oxus, speedily found that they had a warrior to deal with. Whenever these princes ventured to meet him they were infallibly defeated, until he completely subdued all the states, and consolidated the empire. Having provided for his power within the empire, he next turned his attention to its regular and efficient defence against foreign invaders. The very desultoriness of the attacks of the Huns made it difficult to subdue them. When he could meet and force them into a pitched battle, he never failed to give an excellent account of them; but they were no sooner dispersed than they rallied; no sooner chastised in one part of the empire than they poured furiously down to repeat their offences in some other.

Whether the monarch himself, or his able general, Mung-Teen, conceived the grand idea of surrounding China—as it was then limited—with a wall, it would now be no easy matter to ascertain; certain it is that the wall was erected under the superintendence of the general.

This perfectly stupenduous monument of human skill and industry (which is one thousand five hunded miles in length, thirty feet high, and fifteen feet thick on the top), could only have been completed by an absolute monarch. The emperor of China had only to will and be obeyed. He ordered that every third man throughout the empire should aid in the vast work. Like the Israelites in Egypt, and like the native builders of the vast pyramids, the builders of the great wall of China were but slaves, whose slavery only differed from that of purchased slaves, in that it was but for a time they were purchased, and that the price paid for them was not in cash or merchandise, but the *sic volo*, the absolute will of the emperor. A curious calculation has been made, showing that if this wall were pulled down, and a new one made of the materials, twelve feet high and four feet thick, it would be of sufficient length to encircle the globe.

By the stern exercise of his power, the emperor had this mighty wall, with embattled towers at convenient distances on the top, completed, and the towers garrisoned, so as to serve at once for watch towers and fortresses! But though he was a spirited prince, and had a chivalrous desire to protect his empire from the rapine of its barbarous enemies, his reign

was by no means free from cause of censure: for we find he ordered the destruction of the whole body of Chinese literature, in the disgraceful hope of destroying all traces of Chinese history previous to the commencement of his dynasty! The works of Confucius were alone secreted, by some man of well-directed mind, and were found, years after the emperor's death, by some workmen employed in repairing a house.

On the death of Che-Whang-te, his son Urh-she, less politic or less powerful than his father, found it impossible to prevent new outbreaks among the princes who had been reduced to the position of mere nobles and lieutenants of the emperor. Whether leaguing against the commands of the emperor, or assailing each other, they filled the land with strife: entire cities were in some cases destroyed, and the annihilation of the empire seemed at hand; when there arose in the land one of those men of iron nerve and hand who never fail to appear during great revolutions, and always precisely when the myriad-evils of anarchy can only be put an end to by a man who possesses the talents of the soldier joined to the will of the despot. Lien Pang, the man in question, was originally the captain of a band of robbers, and notorious in that character alike for his boldness and success. The distracted state of the country opened the way to his joining the profession of a leader of free lances to that of a robber, and, at first in alliance with some of the princes, and subsequently in opposition to all of them in succession, he fought so ably that he subdued the whole empire, changed his name to that of Kaon-te, and ascended the throne, thus founding the Hang dynasty. Though thus successful within, he was greatly annoyed by the Huns; and so far was his usual success from attending him in his endeavours to free the empire from them, that he bought their quietness with many and costly presents, which on his death and the succession of his son was changed to a stipulated annual tribute.

During several years there were no events worth recording in the history of China; but, in the reign of Woo-te, the empire was assailed by a succession of misfortunes and calamities. Owing to a long continuance of heavy rains the Hoang-ho river burst its banks, sweeping away everything in its path, and causing a destruction, not only of property but also of human life, that was truly terrible. During the same reign the cultivated lands were left completely bare by the invasion of a vast army of those destructive creatures, locusts; and a fire occurred in the capital which burned property to a frightful extent, and was only extinguished after it had consumed a great portion of the city, including almost the whole of the imperial palace. To counterbalance these great national calamities, this reign had one piece of good fortune of the highest consequence. The Huns had made their appearance again in vast numbers; they were completely routed in a great battle, by the Chinese under their general, Wei-sing, who took many thousands of prisoners, together with the whole of the tents, stores, and baggage of these nomadic plunderers. So thoroughly humbled were the Huns on this occasion, that for very many years they did not again make their appearance; they even paid homage to the emperor, Senen-Te, against whom, however, they broke out as fiercely as ever towards the close of his reign.

In the first year of the Christian era Ping-te ascended the imperial throne. He only reigned about five years, and being a weak prince, was even during that period rather the nominal than the real emperor, for both he and the empire were completely ruled by Wang-mang, a prince of great energy, who, on the death of Ping-te, took actual possession of the throne, of which he had long been the virtual owner. Many princes espoused the cause of the displaced dynasty; but though they perpetually made war upon the able usurper, he kept possession of the throne during the remainder of his life. Wang-mang died A. D. 23, and was succeeded

by Hwac-yang-wang; he died in A. D. 58, and was succeeded by Kwang-Woo. This reign is chiefly remarkable on account of the introduction into China, from the neighbouring country of Eastern India, of the Buddhist religion. In the year 89, and the reign of Ho-te, the Tartars, who as well as the Huns and the Cochins, were the perpetual pest of China, again made their appearance. They were worsted in several encounters, and many thousands of them perished. They were driven, broken and dispirited, to the Caspian, and only then escaped owing to the fear with which the mere prospect of a long voyage inspired the Chinese. For several years after this event the affairs of China were in a very pitiable state; the Tartars, returning again and again, added by their ravages to the distress caused by bad seasons; and just under those very circumstances which made the rule of a vigorous and able man more than ever desirable, it, singularly enough, chanced that reign after reign fell to the lot of mere children, in whose names the kingdom was of course governed by the court favourites of the existing empress; the high trust of the favourite arising naturally more from the empress' favour than for his fitness or integrity. Drought, famine, plague, and the frequent curse of foreign invasion, made this part of Chinese history truly lamentable.

In the year 220, the empire was divided into three, and with the usual effect of divided rule in neighbours between whom nature has placed no boundary of sea, or rock, or impracticable desert. In the year 288, the emperor Woo-te succeeded in again uniting the states into one empire. He died about two years later, and was succeeded by Hwuy-te, who reigned seventeen years, but was guilty of many cruelties, and consequently much disliked. The history of no fewer than one hundred and thirteen years, terminating A. D. 420, may be summed up in three words—confusion, pillage, and slaughter. Either native generals and native armies fought, or the fierce Hun and still fiercer Tartar carried death and dismay throughout the empire. Years of bloodshed and confusion at length inclined the more important among the native competitors to peace, and two empires were formed—the northern and southern—the Nan and the Yuh-chow.

Lew-yn, or Woo-te, emperor of the southern empire, though he was far superior in the wealthiness of his share to the prince of the north, was originally the orphan of parents of low rank, who left him in circumstances of such destitution, that his youth was supported by the actual charity of an old woman, who reared him as her own son. As soon as he was old enough he enlisted for a soldier, and subsequently made his way to the empire by a succession of murders upon members of the royal family, including the emperor Kung-te, who was the last of the Tsin dynasty. Lew-yn, or Woo-te, compelled that unfortunate monarch publicly to abdicate in his favour. The prison of deposed kings is proverbially synonymous with their grave. The case of Kung-te was no exception to the general rule; he was put to death by poison. Woo-te died in 422; his son, Ying-Yang-Wang succeeded him, but was speedily deposed in favour of Wan-te. This prince issued an edict against the Buddhist doctrines, which in the northern dominions, where the prince just at that time was possessed of far more power than his southern brother, proceeded still more harshly. All Buddhists were banished; the Buddhist temples burned, and many priests put to death or cruelly tortured and mutilated.

Wan-te, learned himself, was a great friend and promoter of learning. Several colleges were founded by him, and his exertions in this respect were the more valuable, as they were imitated by the prince of the north. Wan-te having sharply reproved his son Lew Chaou, for some misconduct, and threatened to disinherit him, the son brutally murdered him at the instigation of a bonze or priest, who represented that act as the only

means of preventing the father's threat from being carried into effect. The guilt of both the prince and his priestly instigator met with its fitting reward. Lew-senen, half-brother to the prince, raised a powerful army, and attacked Lew Chaou, who with his whole family were beheaded, and all his palaces razed to the ground. Fei-le King-Ho has been aptly enough compared to the Caius Caligula of Rome; bloodshed appeared to be his greatest delight; to be privileged to approach him was at the same time to be in constant peril of being butchered; and he was no less obscene than cruel, an immense and gorgeously decorated hall being built by him, and exclusively devoted to the most disgusting and frantic orgies. The reign of so foul a monster could not be otherwise than short. The very officers of his palace could not tolerate his conduct, and in the year following his accession to the throne he was dispatched by one of the eunuchs of his palace.

Ming-te Tae-che succeeded to the throne, A. D. 466. What he might have proved if his accession had been unopposed we can but guess; but, being opposed, he was aroused to a rage perfectly ungovernable. Those of his relatives who actually took up arms against him were not more hateful than those of them who did not, and many of the latter were put to death by him. His whole reign was passed in warfare with one or more of the princes of his family. This state of things lasted for nearly six years, and caused so much misery to the people, that there would have been a general rising for the purpose of dethroning him, but for his opportune death. Anarchy and war marked the two following reigns, of Chwang-yu-wang, and Shun-te; the former was dispatched by a eunuch employed by an aspiring general, who also compelled Shun-te to abdicate in his favour, and soon afterwards assassinated him. In 479 the aspiring and reckless general, Seawu-Taduching, ascended the throne, under the title of Kaou-te-now; he reigned but two years, and the succeeding princes of this dynasty, Tsi, which terminated in 502, were engaged in continual war with the prince of the north, but performed neither warlike nor peaceful services to merit notice.

A new dynasty, the Leang, was now commenced by Woo-te, who ascended the throne in 502. Under him the old wars between the northern and southern empires were continued. Nevertheless, though warlike and active at the commencement of his reign, he showed himself a great admirer and patron of learning. He revived some learned establishments that had fallen into decay, and founded some new ones; but probably the most important service that he did it was that of publicly teaching in person. We may fairly doubt whether such a prince was not better skilled in the arts of war, as then practised, than in studious lore; but his example tended to make learning fashionable, and he may therefore be said to have afforded it the greatest encouragement. Whatever his actual attainments, his love of study seems to have been both deep and sincere; for while yet in the prime of mental and bodily vigour, he abandoned the pomp and power of the throne, and retired to a monastery with the avowed intention of devoting the remainder of his life to study. This, however, had such mischievous effect upon public affairs, that the principal mandarins compelled him to quit his peaceful retirement and re-ascend the throne; but the rest of his life was passed in strife and tumult, which eventually broke his heart. His son and successor had scarcely commenced his reign, when he was put to death, and succeeded by Yuen-te. This emperor also was fond of retirement and study, and greatly neglected the affairs of his empire, which, distracted as it constantly was by the violence and intrigues of the princes of the empire, required a stern and vigorous attention.

Shin-pan-seen, who was not only a prince of the empire, but also prime minister to the emperor, raised a rebellion against his confiding and peace-

ful master, whose first intimation of his danger was given to him by the fierce shouts of the rebel force at the very gates of his palace. On hearing those boding sounds, the emperor, awakened from his delicious reveries, calmly closed the book he had been so intent upon, put on his armour, and ascended the ramparts. A single glance showed him that it was too late for resistance; he returned to his library, and, setting fire to it, abandoned his sword, and resigned himself to his fate. The library of this unfortunate monarch, who would probably have been both powerful and glorious had he ruled over a less divided and turbulent people, is said to have contained one hundred and forty thousand volumes; an immense number to have been collected even by royalty at such a time and among such a people. The next emperor worthy of any mention, however slight, is Wan-te, whose short reign was so vigorous, prudent, and successful, that he must be considered to have been the chief cause of the re-union which occurred soon after his death between the northern and southern empires. He died in 566, and was succeeded by his son, Pe-tsung, who was speedily dethroned by his uncle and the empress dowager.

The throne was then filled by Suen-te. During his short reign, of less than three years, he fought boldly and constantly against his opponents, and did much towards promoting the fast approaching union of the two empires. On the death of Suen-te, in the year 569, he was succeeded by How Chow, a mere sensualist and idler, whose debauchery and indolence disgusted and angered his people more, probably, than hardier and more active vices would, even though they had been productive of a fiercer and more obvious kind of tyranny. A powerful and warlike noble, Yang-keen, put himself at the head of the disaffected nobles and their followers and laid siege to the imperial city. The inhabitants, who, as might be expected, were even more disgusted with the effeminacy and profligacy they had witnessed, than the beseigers, threw open the gates almost without a struggle. The immediate advisers of the emperor and the notorious companions of his profligate revels were sternly put to death, and search was then made for the emperor. That cowardly sensualist had taken refuge with all his family in a dry well, whence he was dragged out half dead with terror, and expecting no less than instant death at the hands of the victorious rebel leader. But Yang-keen, either in mercy, or with the politic view of placing an additional obstacle in the way of all other pretenders that might arise, spared both him and his family.

On usurping the throne, A. D. 572, Yang-keen's very first act was to consolidate the northern empire with the southern. In this he found little difficulty. Wei, the last really great prince of the northern empire, was both so well able to war, and so little inclined to do so without occasion, that he made his state at once feared without, and peaceful and prosperous within. He was poisoned by his own mother, a woman of high but cruel spirit, and of great talents but most restless disposition. Both she, while she acted as regent to her grandson, and the latter when he had taken the reins of government into his own hands, plunged the state into all the venomous and mischevious wars of the imperial princes; and this fatal departure from the peaceful polity of the former ruler, and the absence of any improvement in his military power, struck a blow at the safety and integrity of the northern empire, which, after a separate existence of upwards of a century and a half, was re-annexed to the southern empire, almost without an effort.

CHAPTER II.

YANG-KEEN having been so successful in obtaining the throne and consolidating the empire, turned his attention to restraining the violence and

rapine of the Tartar chiefs. His reputation for skill, valour, and firmness, here did him good service. Bold and rapacious as the Tartars were, they were too well aware of the character of the monarch whom they now had to deal with, to hope that he would overlook any of the advantages he possessed. They professed themselves desirous rather of his friendship than his enmity; and to show the sincerity of what they called their amity, but what would have been far more correctly termed their terror, they went so far as to pay him homage. With his usual shrewd policy, Yang-keen gave one of the imperial princesses in marriage to the principal Tartar chief. Nor was he ill-rewarded for the facility with which he permitted himself to substitute alliance for strife. During his reign, his people remained free from the incursions of the Tartars, which had previously been as frequent as the natural tempests, and far more destructive.

On the death of Yang-keen, in 604, the heir to the throne was strangled by a younger brother, Yang-te, who, having committed the fratricide and removed all other obstacles from his path, ascended the throne in 605. The means by which this prince obtained the throne, common as such means are in despotic and but partially civilized nations, deserve all the detestation that we can bestow upon them; but if he obtained the throne shamefully, he filled it well. Though eminently a man of taste and pleasure, he was no less a man of judgment, enterprise, and energy. In the early part of his reign he formed extensive gardens, which for magnitude and tastefulness were never before witnessed in China; and in these gardens it was his chief delight to ride, attended by a retinue of a thousand ladies, splendidly attired, who amused him with vocal and instrumental music, and with dancing and feats of grace and agility on horseback. This luxurious habit did not, however, prevent him from paying great attention to the solid improvements of which China at that time stood so much in need. It would be idle to remark upon the importance (to both the prosperity and the civilization of a people) of good and numerous means of communication between all the extremities of their land. Many of his canals and bridges still exist, as proofs both of his zeal and judgment in this most important department of the duty of a ruler. But his talents, energy, and accomplishments, could not save him; he had been on a tour, not improbably with a view to some new improvement in the face of the country, when he was assassinated. This melancholy event, it seems probable, arose from the successful artifices of Le-yuen: he was both powerful and disaffected; had previously signalized himself by the most factious conduct, and immediately after the assassination, put himself forward to place King-te upon the vacant throne. What motive Le-yuen had in making this man the mere puppet of sovereignty for a brief time it is difficult to conjecture; but it is certain that King-te had scarcely ascended the throne, before Le-yuen caused him to be strangled and assumed the sovereign power himself.

It is strange that ill-acquired power is sometimes used with wisdom and moderation, as though in the struggle to obtain it the evil portion of the posessor's nature had been exhausted. Le-yuen, or rather Kaou-tsoo, which name he took on ascending the throne, was a remarkable instance of this. Nothing could be more sanguinary or unscrupulous than the course by which he became master of the empire; nothing could be braver, more politic, or, as regarded his internal administration, milder, than his conduct after he had obtained it. For some years previous to his usurpation, the Tartars had returned to their old practice of making incursions into the northern parts of China, on some portion of which they had actually proceeded to settle themselves. Kaou-tsoo attacked them with great spirit, and in many severe engagements made such slaughter among them as to impress them with a salutary fear of pushing their encroachments farther. Looking with a politic and prescient eye at the

state of other nations, Kaou-tsoo was extremely anxious about that singular and ferocious people, the Turks, who about the commencement of his reign began to be very troublesome in Asia. Dwelling between the Caspian sea and the river Hypanis, the Turks were a sylvan people, hardy, and living chiefly upon the spoils of the chase. Thus prepared by their way of life to the hardships of war, and having their cupidity excited by the rich booty of the caravans, which they occasionally rushed upon from their peninsular lair to plunder, this people could not fail to be otherwise than terrible, when, under a brave and politic leader, they went forth to the conquest of nations instead of the pillage of a caravan, and appeared as a great multitude instead of a mere isolated handful of robbers. To China they were especially hateful and mischievous; for they were perpetually at war with the Persians, with whom just at that time, far the most valuable part of Chinese commerce was carried on. The Persians fell before the Turkish power, and that restless power endeavoured to push their conquests into China. It might probably have effected this had a different man ruled the empire; but the emperor not merely repulsed them from his own territory, but chastised the disaffected Thibetians who had aided them and pushed forward into China, whence he expelled the Turks. After a victorious and active reign of twenty-two years and a few months, this brave and politic emperor died, and was succeeded by Chun-tsung, whose effeminacy was the more glaringly disgraceful from contrast with the brave and active character of his predecessor. The single act for which his historian gave him any credit, is that of having made it necessary for the literati, who by this time exercised pretty nearly as much influence in both private and public affairs in China as the clergy did in Europe during the middle ages, to sustain a rather severe public examination.

Of the next seventeen monarchs of China there is literally nothing recorded that is worthy of transcript; nor during their reigns did anything of moment occur to China beyond the civil dissensions, which were frequent, and indeed inevitable, in a country where effeminate princes committed their power to intriguing eunuchs, who scarcely ever failed to prevent a resumption of it, by the dagger or the poisoned cup. Chwang-tsung, son of a brave and skilful general, founded the How-Tang dynasty, and, at least at the outset of his reign, was a bright contrast to his predecessors. He had from mere boyhood shared the perils and hardships of his father, whom he had accompanied in many of his expeditions. At the commencement of his reign he gave every promise of being the greatest monarch China ever saw. In his apparel and diet he emulated the frugality of the meanest peasant and the plainest of his troops. Lest he should indulge in more sleep than nature actually required, he was accustomed to have no other bed than the bare ground, and, as if this luxurious way of lying might lead him to waste in sleep any of that precious time of which he was a most rigid economist, he had a bell so fastened to his person, that it rang on his attempting to turn round, so loudly as to awaken him, and after it did so he immediately rose, to repose no more until his usual hour on the ensuing night. Extremes are proverbially said to meet; but certainly one would never have suspected that so Spartan a youth would have heralded a manhood of exceeding luxury and even licentiousness. But so it was; his companions were among the most profane wassailers in his empire, and he emulated their conduct. Yet though he departed from the, perhaps, too rigid severity of his manners, he was to the last a brave and active man, and was slain at the head of his troops in a battle fought in 926, having in spite of some personal defects of character already noted, been on the whole one of the most respectable of all the native Chinese emperors.

The next was Ming-tsung, who reigned for only seven years. But if his reign was short it was active and beneficent; and if there are many greater names in the imperial annals, there is not one more beloved. His people looked upon him as a parent, and his whole reign seems, in fact, to have been the expression and achievement of a truly kind and paternal feeling. He died in 933, with a character greater monarchs might envy. Min-te succeeded to the throne in 933. He only reigned one year; but in that very brief space of time he contrived to deserve, if not to obtain, the execration of the Chinese women, not only of his own time, but up to the present hour. He it was who established the truly barbarous practice of confining the feet of female children in such a manner that the toes are bent completely under the soles of the feet, which are, it is true, rendered very diminutive in appearance by this abominable method, but are at the same time rendered almost useless. The loitering and awkward gait of the women would be sufficient to make this practice deserving of all abhorrence as a matter of taste merely, but when we consider the exquisite torture which the unhappy creatures must have suffered in girlhood, it is really wonderful that such a practice should so long have existed in any nation possessing even the first rudiments of civilization.

Min-te died in 934, in the first year of his reign, and was succeeded by Fei Tei, who paid the fearful price of fratricide for the throne. He possessed, it would seem, a great share of merely animal courage, and like the generality of persons who do so, he was distinguished for his exceeding barbarity. Even the Chinese, accustomed as they were to despotism in all its varieties of misrule, could not endure the excess and wantonness of his cruelty. A formidable revolt broke out; and finding himself hard pressed by his enemies, and abandoned every moment by his troops, he collected the whole of his family together, and, like another Sardanapalus, set fire to his palace—his wealth, his family, and himself being consumed in the flames. Kaou-tse now ascended the throne, being the first of the How-tsin dynasty. He was more the nominal than the real monarch, his minister, Hung-taieu, usurping a more than imperial power. The minister, in fact, is in every way more worthy of mention than the monarch, for according to the most credible accounts the invention of printing from blocks was a boon conferred by him upon China in the year 937. Both this reign and that of Chuh-te, which closed this short-lived dynasty, were occupied in perpetual battling with the restless Tartars, who for ages seem to have had an instinctive certainty of having, sooner or later, the rule of China, as the reward of their determined and pertinacious inroads.

In 960, Kung-te, a child of only six years of age, being upon the throne, the people arose and demanded his abdication. Of maternal and eunuch misgovernment they certainly had for centuries past had abundant experience. How far the successful aspirant to the throne was concerned in rousing their fears into activity and fervour does not appear; but it is certain that the revolt against the infant emperor, and the election of Chaou-quang-yin as his successor, were events in which the people showed great unanimity of feeling. This founder of the Sung dynasty did not commence his reign under the most promising circumstances; for on the ceremonial of his acceptance of the throne, he actually ascended in a state of intoxication. Nevertheless, this prince, who on his elevation to the throne took the name of Taou-tsoo, was in reality one of the best of the Chinese monarchs, both as a warrior and a domestic ruler. The imbecility or infancy of some of his predecessors, and the pernicious habit into which others fell of leaving the actual administration of affairs in the hands of eunuchs, and other corrupt favorites, had caused the court expenses as well as the court retinue to be swelled to a shameful extent. The new emperor, immediately after his accession, caused the most

rigid enquiry to be made into the expenses of the state; and every useless office was abolished, and every unfair charge sternly and promptly disallowed. In effecting this great and important reform, the emperor derived no small benefit from having formerly been a private person, as in that capacity he no doubt would have the opportunity to note any abuses which could never be discovered by the emperor or any of the imperial princes. His frugality seems to have been as impartial as it was wise; for though he raised his family, for four generations, to the rank of imperial princes, he at the same time insisted upon their being content with the most moderate revenue that was at all consistent with their rank.

When we bear in mind the long and indefatigable endeavours of the Tartars to obtain a footing in the interior of the Chinese empire, and couple that fact with their now leaguing with the Chinese revolters against the new emperor, we shall not be presumptuous if we affirm that the opposition to him was in fact more foreign than native. The emperor made immense levies of men throughout the provinces that were faithful to him, and marched against his enemies. The subsequent conflicts were dreadful; the troops of the prince of Han well knowing that they had little mercy to hope for if taken prisoners, fought with the fury and obstinacy of despair, and they were well seconded by the Tartars. Thousands fell in each engagement; and though the emperor was a warrior and a brave one, he is said to have often subsequently shed tears at the mere remembrance of the bloodshed he witnessed during this war. The overwhelming levies of the emperor, and perhaps, that "tower of strength," the royal name, which the adverse faction wanted, made him completely successful. Having put down this opposition, he next proceeded against the prince of Choo, whom he captured and deprived of his dominions. Among the millions of souls whom he thus added to his subjects was an extremely numerous and well-appointed army. This he forthwith incorporated with his own, and thus strengthened in force, marched against Kyang-Nan and southern Han. Here again he was completely successful, and he now turned his attention to the chastisement of the Mongols of Leaon-tung, who had joined the prince of Han in the former war; but the issue of this expedition was still uncertain when the emperor died. Though engaged in war from the beginning to the end of his reign, this emperor was attentive to the internal state of his empire. When not actually in the field he was at all times accessible; to the humblest as to the highest the gates of the imperial palace were open, and in giving his decision he knew no distinction between the mandarin and the poor labourer. This conduct in his military and civic affairs, produced him the enviable character of being the "terror of his enemies and the delight of his subjects."

T'ae-tsung, son of the last-mentioned monarch, ascended the throne at the death of his father, whose warlike measures he proceeded to carry out, and whose warlike character and abilities he to a great extent inherited. During his entire reign he was engaged in war; now with the Mongols, at that time the most threatening of all the enemies of the empire, and now with this or that refractory native prince. It is strange that the emperors never thought, so far as we can perceive, of the policy of concentrating their forces upon the positions of individual princes, and on every decisive advantage demanding such a contribution in money as would effectually impoverish him; at the same time demanding as hostages not only some of the more important of his own family, but of all the other great families connected with him. These measures, though severe upon individuals, would have been merciful as regards the great mass of both contending parties. After twenty-one years of almost perpetual warfare, with many successes and comparatively few de-

feats, Tae-tsung died, in 997, leaving behind him a character only less honorable than that of his predecessor, inasmuch as he paid less constant and minute attention to the internal order of the empire and the individual welfare of his subjects.

Chin-tsung now succeeded to the empire, a prince whose character and conduct strangely contrasted with those of his two immediate predecessors. The bonzes or priests, were the only persons who had reason to like him; and even their liking, excited though it was by personal advantage, must have been mixed with no slight feeling of contempt. There was no tale that they could tell him which was too extravagant for his implicit belief; no command too absurd for his unqualified obedience. Every morning the imperial zany was busied in relating his overnight dreams, and it need scarcely be said that the bonzes took especial care to interpret those dreams so as to tend to confirm the weak-minded and hypochondriac monarch in his fatuous course, and to make that course as profitable as possible to themselves individually, and as favourable as possible to their order at large. The warlike and shrewd Tartars speedily perceived the difference betwixt an emperor who divided his time between dreaming and listening to the interpretations of his dreams—leaving the empire and its vast complicated interests to the care, or carelessness of eunuchs and time-servers—and the warlike and clear-headed emperors with whom they had to deal during the two preceding reigns. They poured in upon the empire with a fury proportioned to the ineffective resistance they anticipated, and their shrewd conjectures were amply justified by the event. Resistance, indeed, was made to them on the frontiers; but instead of their being driven beyond the frontiers with a message of mourning to thousands of Tartar families, their absence was purchased. Great stores of both money and silk were paid to them by order of the Chinese court, which, like the Roman, when Rome had become utterly degenerate, was fain to purchase the peace it dared or could not battle for. Ying-tsung, Shin-tsung, and Hwuy-tsung, the three immediate successors of the weak prince of whose reign we have just spoken, followed his impolitic policy of purchasing peace. We emphatically say impolitic, because common sense tells us to yield tribute once, is to encourage the demand of it in future. The tribute once secured, the hardy and unprincipled Tartars again returned to the charge, to be again bought off, and to derive, of course, renewed assurance of booty whensoever they should again think proper to apply for it. Hwuy-tsung, the third of the emperors named above, having a dire perception of the error committed by himself and his three immediate predecessors, determined to adopt a new course, and instead of bribing the "barbarians" who so cruelly annoyed him, to hire other barbarians to expel them, thus adding to the folly of buying peace the still farther folly of giving the clearest insight into the weakness of his condition, to those who, being his allies as long as they received his wages, would infallibly become his enemies the instant he ceased to hire them.

This prince engaged the warlike tribe of Neu-che Tartars in the defence of his territory. They ably and faithfully performed what they had engaged; but when they had driven out the Nien-cheng Tartars they flatly refused to quit the territory, and made a hostile descent upon the provinces of Pecheli and Shansi, which they took possession of. At the same time the Mongols were pouring furiously down upon the provinces of Shau-tong and Honan; and the terrified and unwarlike emperor saw no other means of saving his dominions, than by coming to immediate terms with his late allies and present foes, the victorious and imperious Neu-che Tartars. He accordingly went to their camp, attended by a splendid retinue of his chief officers, to negotiate not only for a peace, but also for their active and prompt aid against the Mongols. But the emperor had

so long left the affairs of the empire in the hands of intriguers and venal sycophants, that he was not sufficiently acquainted with his actual position to take even ordinary precautions; he was literally sold by his ministers into the hands of his enemies; and on reaching the Tartar camp, he found that he was no longer a powerful prince treating for peace and alliance with an inferior people, but a powerless prisoner of war, in the hands of his enemies, and abandoned by his friends. Abandoned he indeed was, by all save his son. That spirited prince, faithful to his fallen father, and indignant at the treachery practised against him, put the ministers to death, and gathered an immense force against the Mongols, who, in the meantime, had been making the most rapid and terrible advances. Rapine and fire marked their path whithersoever they went. The emperor's gallant son made admirable but useless efforts to approach them. Leaving devastation and misery in their rear, they rapidly approached the capital, laid siege to the imperial palace itself, butchered thousands of the inhabitants, including some of the imperial family, and sent the rest into captivity.

CHAPTER III.

KAOU-TSUNG II. at this period reigned over the southern provinces. When the barbarians overran the northern parts of the empire, he made noble and able attempts at beating them off from his dominions; but they were far too warlike and numerous for his limited resources. To the northern provinces and to the captive emperor he was unable to afford any assistance by force of arms, nor could his humblest and most tempting offers to the savage foes induce them to liberate a prisoner or evacuate a rood of land. All that he was able to gain from them was permission to retain his own rule in peace, on paying an annual tribute and acknowledging his subjection.

In 1194 the celebrated Genghis Khan was at the head of the Mongol Tartars. At the outset of this warrior's career his people revolted from him, excepting only a very few families, on the ground of his being, at the death of his father, too young to rule a numerous and extremely warlike people. But the youth displayed so much talent and courage, and his earliest essays as a warrior were so entirely and strikingly successful, that the tide of opinion speedily turned in his favour; and an old and venerated Mongol chief having, in a public assembly of the people, prophesied that the youth, then known by his family name of Temujin, would, if supported as he deserved to be, prove to be the greatest of their khans—Genghis Khan (the Mongols words for the greatest king) was immediately made the youth's name by acclamation, and the bold but barbarous and vacillating people as unanimously submitted to him now, as formerly they had seceded from him. It was to this chief, who had already made his name a name of terror far beyond the banks of the Selinga, the native abode of his fierce race, that Ning-tsung, the then emperor of China, applied for aid to drive out other Tartars, by whom, as well as by native malcontents, the nation was very sorely oppressed at that period.

Genghis Khan, already inured to conquest and thirsting for extended dominion, eagerly complied with the impolitic request of Ning-tsung. During the reign of that monarch, and Le-tsung, by whom he was, at his death in 1225, succeeded, the Mongols passed from triumph to triumph, the unhappy natives suffering no less from the barbarians who were hired to defend them than from the other barbarians who avowedly entered the empire for purposes of rapine and bloodshed. Le-tsung, a prince whose natural indolence was increased by his superstitious attachment to the

most superstitious priests in his empire, was a voluntary prisoner in his palace. The atrocities committed in what the Mongols seemed bent upon making a war of extermination, were dreadful; the most authentic accounts speaking of the slaughter among the people as amounting to hundreds of thousands. Genghis Khan dying, was succeeded by a grandson named Kublai; and Le-tsung also dying, was succeeded by Too-tsung. This last named prince was as debauched as his predecessor had been superstitious; and wholly taken up with the gratification of his shameful sensuality, he saw, almost without a care or struggle, the Mongols under Kublai proceeding with their ravages, and Kublai at length become master of the northern provinces. Thus far successful, it was not likely the conquering chief would forbear turning his attention to the southern provinces; which, as we learn from Marco Polo, was considered by far the most wealthy and splendid of the kingdoms of the east. The very wealth of the southern empire, and its comparatively long exemption from war, rendered pretty certain that it would easily be overrun by him who had conquered the hardier and more experienced warriors of the north. Province after province and city after city was taken, without the experience on the part of the Mongols of anything approaching to a severe check. With rapid and sure steps they approached the city of Kinsai, the capital and royal residence, and wealthy to an extent not easily to be described. The then emperor, Kung-tsung, seems to have despaired of successful defence against a foe so long victorious, and to have supposed his empress could more successfully appeal to a victor's mercy than he could to the fortunes of war. He accordingly got together all the treasure that could be at all conveniently embarked on board his fleet, gave the command of it to his most experienced naval commander and put out to sea. The fact of the defence of Kinsai being committed to a beautiful woman, did not prevent Kublai from ordering his generals to use their utmost exertions in bringing the siege to a speedy conclusion. Such orders ensured an activity which reduced the garrison to most alarming distresses; but the empress consoled herself under every new disaster by a prophecy which had been made by a court astrologer—a kind of cheat very popular with most of the Chinese monarchs—that Kinsai could only be taken by a general having a hundred eyes. As such a specimen of natural history was by no means likely to appear, the empress allowed nothing to daunt her, until, on enquiring the name of a general whom Kublai had entrusted to make a new and vigorous assault on the city, she was told that it was Chin-san ba-yan. These words—which mean the hundred-eyed—seemed in such ominous agreement with the requirement of the prophecy, that the empress allowed her hitherto high courage to give place to a superstitious horror, and she immediately surrendered the city, on receiving from Kublai assurance, which he very honourably fulfilled, of treatment and an allowance in conformity with her rank.

Sa-yan-fu, which was a far stronger city than the capital, and against which no superstitious influence was brought, held bravely out against the efforts of the Mongols for upwards of three years. Marco Polo and his brother Nicolo, the Italian travellers and traders, anxious to ingratiate themselves with the formidable and prosperous Kublai, supplied him with besieging engines which threw stone balls of the tremendous weight of one hundred and twenty pounds. Such missiles soon made practicable breaches in the hitherto impregnable walls. The town was stormed, and Kublai, enraged at its long and obstinate resistance, gave it to the mercy of his troops.

The fugitive emperor found in some distant and strongly fortified islets, a shelter for his treasure, but not that safety for himself which he had sought with so much sacrifice of dignity and character. He had not long

been at his post of security, when he was seized with an illness which speedily terminated his life. The empress, who seems to have been altogether as brave and adventurous as her husband was timid, strengthened the fleet at Yae islands, under the command of the emperor's favourite admiral, Low-sewfoo, proclaimed Te-ping, her son, emperor, and repaired with him on board the fleet. The Mongol fleet, after attacking Canton, hove in sight of the imperial fleet, when a tremendous action commenced and continued for an entire day. The Mongols, though even their loss was dreadful, were victorious, and the Chinese or imperial fleet was so much shattered that Low-sewfoo found it impossible to get his crippled vessels through the straits. Dreading the very worst from the resentment which Kublai was likely to feel at this new resistance on the part of the empress, that brave but unfortunate woman committed suicide by jumping overboard. Her terrible example was followed by several of her principal attendants, including the admiral, who leaped overboard with the young emperor in his arms. So disastrous a day as this could not fail to be decisive; all the comparatively small part of the south that had hitherto held out was quickly overrun, and the whole empire was now under a Mongol emperor concentrated into one. Under the title of Shi-tsu, Kublai ascended the imperial throne in 1279, and in so doing laid the foundation of the Yuen dynasty.

Shi-tsu having obtained the mighty and vast empire of China, now determined to use its resources in adding Japan to his already unwieldy possession. But this time he was fated to a fortune very different from that which usually attended him. The Japanese, instead of shrinking at the approach of a force that from its previous successes might well have made them pause as to the prudence of resistance, fortified their forts in the strongest manner time would admit. One being at length taken, the resistance of the garrison was punished by the butchery of every man, without exception, eight of the number being beat to death with clubs. The real reason of this cruel distinction being awarded to the eight unhappy persons was, most likely, that they were distinguished in their rank or the zeal and determination of their resistance. But the fondness that exists for the marvellous has caused this occurrence to be attributed to the somewhat inexplicable mechanical impossibility of putting them to death by decapitation, on account of iron chains which they wore round their necks. Before the terror such barbarity might possibly have carried into the hearts of the other garrisons, had time to produce weakness or treachery, a tremendous storm arose by which a great portion of the Tartar, or rather Tartar-Chinese, fleet was wrecked. The extent of the injury so alarmed the commanders, that they hastened home with the remainder of their ships, abandoning many thousands of their followers to the vengeance of the Japanese. Shi-tsu died in 1295; and it was not until his grandson, Tching-sung, ascended the throne, and began to imitate the ambitious and warlike conduct of his great predecessor, that anything worthy of even casual mention occurred in the history of the subjugated people of China.

Tching-sung is better known in Europe as Timour the Tartar, or Tamerlane, whose treatment of his opponent Bajazet has been made the subject of so many dramas and tales. His name of Timour (the iron) seems to have been exactly suited to his energetic, untiring, and unsparing nature. Fixing the imperial residence at Samarcand, he appears to have formed the project of carrying on the work of subjugation to the utmost possible extent in all directions. Persia, Georgia, and Delhi, speedliy felt and succumbed to his power; he drove the Indians quite to the Ganges, and utterly destroyed Astracan and other places in that direction. Bajazet, the Ottoman monarch, seems to us to have had the most just cause imaginable to arrest the course of a man who was evidently deter-

mined upon making himself, if possible, the sole monarch of the east. But the Ottoman was far inferior to the Tartar in that strength which is as important to success as even a good cause itself. We are assured that while Bajazet had only 120,000 men, his opponent brought 700,000 into the field. Probably the force of Tamerlane has been much exaggerated, though there can be no doubt the army of Bajazet very greatly exceeded that of his opponent. The day on which this tremendous battle was fought was sultry in the extreme, yet so obstinate were both parties, that the contest continued from the morning until a late hour at night. The comparatively small army of Bajazet was in the end completely routed, and the unfortunate monarch himself taken prisoner. The conduct of Tamerlane on this occasion was such as would cast disgrace on the most signal courage and talents. Instead of allowing the sympathies of a brave man to soften him towards his singularly brave though unfortunate opponent, he had him put into an iron cage and carried from place to place with him in all his excursions, exhibiting him as one would a wild beast, and at the same time displaying on his own part a temper far more like that of a wild beast than a brave and successful warrior. The unfortunate Bajazet lived in this most pitiable condition until the year 1303, when he died, as tradition says, and as was most likely, of a broken heart.

Tamerlane during his various and extensive expeditions had committed the internal government of his empire to certain princes of his house—his grandsons and nephews. Their authority and character being far less respected and feared than his own, several insurrections took place, and Tamerlane, or Tchin-sung, now marched towards China with the avowed determination of inflicting severe chastisement; but as he was advancing with forced marches for that purpose, he was seized with an illness which terminated both his prospects and his life in 1305. His descendants kept up a perpetual scramble for the empire, in which they contrived the utter ruin of the high character they owed to him. A series of revolts and intrigues followed each other during the strifes of succeeding emperors and pretenders; and the next event necessary to give any account of, is an embassy sent from Persia to China in the reign of Yung-lo, also called Ching-tsoo. The account of this empassy is the more interesting, because it gives us considerable insight into the manners and state of society in China at that time, and mentions what Marco Polo does not—tea, to which, more than aught else, China owes its importance in the eyes of the modern inhabitants of Europe. Even at this early period the Chinese seem to have had all the modern jealousy of the entrance of strangers into the so-called "Celestial Empire." Before the embassy in question was allowed to set foot upon the boundaries of the empire, an exact list of all persons belonging to the embassage was required, including the humblest attendants, and the ambassadors-in-chief were called upon to swear to the truth and exactness of the list. Chinese jealousy being satisfied thus far, the embassage commenced its toilsome journey of one hundred days towards the capital. It is only fair to add, however, that after their first suspicion was formally and officially silenced, there seems to have been a most liberal hospitality shown in the way of substantial good fare, accompanied by an unstinted supply of excellent wines.

The capital of China, Cambulu, now known far better by the name of Pekin, is spoken of as being even at that time a city of great magnitude and opulence. It would seem not unlikely that the silly absurdity of the Chinese, in speaking of such people as the English, Dutch, and other highly civilized Europeans, under the opprobrious name of outside barbarians, is an absurdity which others besides the Chinese are unfortunately guilty of. The way in which modern writers allow themselves to

speak of the Chinese is in many things to be equally reprobated. The long intercourse with Jesuits, missionaries, and others specially sent there, with a reference to their science, judgment, and aptitude for the difficult business of communicating, not merely knowledge itself but also the desire for it, could scarcely have left the Chinese so much behind the rest of the world, in invention and practice in the higher productions, even had no progress been previously made by them. But when so early as the 15th century, we hear of such an achievement as the *Turning Tower*, of which we are about to give a description, who will consent to believe that above four centuries later they are the backward and ignorant people they are called? That really wonderful structure, is stated by shrewd and intelligent observers to be worthy of the visit and careful examination of every smith and carpenter upon the face of the earth. What, in fact, are we acquainted with of merely human construction, that can for an instant bear comparison with a tower fifteen stories high, each story twelve cubits high, and the whole edifice twenty cubits in circumference, having a total height of 180 cubits, which *turns round upon a metal axis;* and that with little more difficulty than if it were merely a child's toy? Assuredly, the people who even in whim could erect such a structure as this at a period of more than four centuries ago, cannot now be the incapable and unprovided race which many late accounts would represent them.

The emperor's palace at Pekin is described as being extremely rich, spacious and grand. While the ambassadors and their suite were there, it was constantly surrounded by about two thousand musicians, playing and singing anthems to the praise of the emperor, whose throne was of solid gold, ascended by a flight of nine silver steps. On the emperor ascending this rare and gorgeous throne, the chiefs of the embassy were introduced; and after a brief and very formal audience, at which they did not prostrate themselves in the Chihese fashion, but bowed in that of the Persians, they were reconducted to the apartments provided for them, where a sheep, a goose, and two fowls, with fruit, vegetables, and tea, were daily served out to every *six* persons!

An evil deed, whether of man or nation, rarely proves other than an evil seed. The unprovoked aggresion of the Chinese-Tartars under Kublai, was not only productive of great injury to the Chinese fleet at the time, but led to very many subsequent losses and calamities. Favourably situated as Japan was for the maintenance of a fleet, it was a power upon which such a piratical attack as that of Kublai could not be made without incurring serious danger of heavy reprisals. Tin-tsung, an extremely well-inclined prince, found the attacks of the Japanese so frequent and so fearfully injurious to his people, and to the imperial fleet, that his earliest care was directed to that subject. The Japanese, an essentially sea-faring people, had, according to the least exaggerated accounts, from six to seven thousand vessels of various sizes, manned with their most daring and unprincipled people, not a few of them ready for piracy and murder as a part of their proper trade. Running suddenly into the Chinese ports, the daring adventurers committed acts not merely of robbery, but of the most wanton destruction of property and life, firing whole towns and villages, and retiring with immense booty. During the eleven years of his reign the emperor Tin-tsung was so spirited and incessant in his opposition to these daring rovers, that he would probably have permanently rid his country of them, had his life not been so early terminated.

Suen-tsung, who succeeded the last named emperor, was but barely allowed to ascend the throne when he was about to be dethroned by some of the grandees of the empire, among whom was his own uncle. Fortunately for the emperor, his army was more faithful to him than the grandees; and after a most obstinate engagement between it and the force

of the insurgents, the latter were completely overthrown. With a far greater lenity than would have been shown by some monarchs after being so early and deeply offended, the emperor spared the lives of the ringleaders, though, as a sheer matter of self-defence, he reduced some of them to the rank of commoners, and confiscated the estates of others.

Though the commencement of his reign was thus stormy, he was very little disturbed by revolts afterwards, to the time of his death in 1436. He was succeeded by Chin-tung, a minor; the empress-dowager being his guardian, and the real state authority being divided between her and her chief adviser, the eunuch Wan-chin. This latter personage seems to have had nobler and more spirited notions of government than were commonly displayed by the effeminate and venal court favourites. He not only took prompt and active measures for repressing the Tartars, who annoyed the Tartar-Chinese with as much impartiality as though they had been still a purely Chinese people and government, but also took the field in person. Both he and the youthful emperor were taken prisoners, and matters began to look very prosperously for the Tartars, who were not only more expert in the use of the newly introduced fire-arms, but also invariably used them, which upon certain solemn days the Chinese, from superstitious notions, refused to do. As a matter of course, the Tartars always sought every chance of taking them at so great a disadvantage, and made fearful havoc whenever they contrived to do so. But the bold spirit which Wan-chin had infused into the councils of the imperial court, soon turned the scale. The imperial authority was assumed by King-tae, who, however, subsequently showed that he had assumed such authority in the truest spirit of a loyal subject and most honourable man. He advanced against the Tartars, and opposed them with such skill, courage, and tenacity, that he completely defeated them, compelled them to restore the young Chin-tung to liberty, unransomed, and then immediately descended from a dignity that has so often been obtained by the commission of the most detestable crimes, and placed upon the throne the young sovereign whom his valour and conduct had already restored to liberty. The remainder of the reign of Chin-tung, about ten years, was comparatively peaceful and prosperous.

The early part of the 16th century produced an event of which even yet the consequences are but partially and dimly seen—the appearance of the Portuguese at China. They went there merely as adventurous mariners and keen traders; but it is quite within the pale of probability that before such another space as three hundred years, the whole vast population may as a consequencee mbrace Christianity. To India the Portuguese had already made their way by the Cape of Good Hope, and had an extremely flourishing settlement. The governor of the Portuguese in India determined to send a somewhat imposing embassy to China; accordingly, Andrada and Perez, two ambassadors, sailed to Canton, their own vessels being under a convoy of eight large ships, well manned and armed. Perez and Andrada, with two vessels, were allowed to proceed up the river on their embassy. While they did so, the crew and merchants who were left with the other vessels in the Canton river, busied themselves in endeavouring to trade with the natives. As usual, wherever a turbulent body of seamen is concerned, the laws of *meum* and *tuum* were frequently set at nought, and this one-sided system of free-trading so greatly enraged the Chinese, that the little fleet was surrounded by the Chinese war junks, and only escaped capture by the opportune occurrence of a severe storm. Perez, though far up the country, and personally innocent, was seized by the Chinese as the scape-goat of his fellow countrymen's offences. He was hurried back to Canton with the utmost ignominy, loaded with irons, and put into a prison, from which he never again emerged until death set him free.

On the accession, in 1627, of Hwae-tsung, the Tartars, who, during the comparatively quiet seven years' reign of this emperor's immediate predecessor, had been preparing themselves for war, broke out fiercely and suddenly. The time was peculiarly favourable to their anticipated overthrow of the empire, which was overrun by two robbers, whose *armies* were not only more numerous than that of the emperor, but had already so far beaten it as to have obtained possession of some important provinces. City after city had fallen before these fierce rebels, and the imperial troops were in some places reduced to such an extremity of famine, that the bodies of executed criminals formed a portion of their disgusting food, and human flesh was, without shame or remark, exposed for sale in the open market. The imperial general was at length so pressed by the rebel troops, that being at once in despair of successful resistance, and determined not to surrender, he caused the dykes to be cut through which retained the river Hoang-ho from inundating the country in which he was encamped, and at one feel swoop he and the whole of the troops and inhabitants, in all above two hundred thousand, were drowned. If the affairs of the empire were desperate before, the loss of this force could not fail to complete the ruin. The rebels and robbers who had alone been so formidable, now united with the wily Mantchoo Tartars, who had so well known how to "bide their time." The unfortunate emperor finding that there was no longer any hope or safety for him even in his own palace, strangled himself. The last city that endeavoured to make head against the victorious and formidable Tartars and robbers was Tae-yuen. The inhabitants, and a comparative handful of imperial troops, defended this with a stern obstinacy, which, under a different state of things in the empire at large, would have been very likely to save it; the Tartars were repulsed again and again, until the very numbers of their slain enabled them to fill up the ditches and mount. Instead of admiring the gallantry of their conquered opponents, and treating them with mercy, the Tartars savagely put the inhabitants to the sword, and then gave the devoted city to the flames.

Woo San-quei, an able politician as well as a brave general, did not, even now that the emperor was slain, and the most precious parts of the empire in the hands of the Tartars or rebels, despair of retrieving affairs. By a lavish distribution of rich presents he engaged the Mantchoo leaders to abandon the cause of the rebels, and to join with him against their chief. Woo San-quei's policy succeeded in procuring him the alliance of the Mantchoo Tartars; and, aided by them, he vanquished their former allies, the rebels, after a series of achievements on both sides, that equal anything recounted in the wars of the most distinguished generals of ancient times. But a new proof was now exhibited of the danger of purchased allies, who, like the elephants used in Indian warfare, are liable to become as formidable to their friends as to their foes. The Tartars having put down the rebels, took possession of Pekin (or Cambulu), which they expressed their determination to "protect," a word to which armed protectors attach a meaning very different from that assigned to it by the protected. They proclaimed Shun-che, a son of their own monarch, emperor of the northern provinces of China, the seat of his government being Pekin, while the princes and mandarins of the southern provinces proclaimed Choo-yew, the seat of whose government was at Nankin.

CHAPTER IV.

There being a northern and southern empire, and the thrones being respectively filled by a Tartar and a Chinese, it might easily have been forseen that war and bloodshed would once more vex the unhappy people

of both empires; and the opposite natures of the two emperors, far from decreasing, increased this probability. The emperor of the south was unworthy of his high station, and ill-calculated for its peculiar exigencies. His indolence and gross sensuality, added, no doubt, to the tyrannies of the subordinates to whom he committed the cares of state, while he abandoned himself to his indulgences, caused a spirit of revolt to show itself, which the northern emperor was not slow to avail himself of. Marching rapidly upon the southern provinces, he possessed himself of the capital, Nankin, and after a long series of successes, became master of the whole empire, with the exception of some few comparatively unimportant portions; and the princes of even these may be said to have been his tributaries rather than independent rulers.

Shun-che was the first emperor of China who came into direct hostile collision with the Russians, who, in his reign made their way to the great river Amur on the borders of Tartary. The Russians seized upon Dauri, a fortified Tartar town of some strength, and in several battles obtained signal advantages. But subsequently the Chinese recovered their ground, and a treaty was entered into by which all the northern bank of the Amur, together with the sole navigation of that river, was assigned to the Chinese, and Tobolsk was fixed as the neutral trading ground of the two nations. Busily and successfully as Shun-che was engaged in war, he seems to have been by no means insensible to the importance of the arts of peace. The Portuguese and other missionaries and scholars who, in despite of almost innumerable obstacles, had by this time settled themselves in China, in considerable numbers, found at the hands of this warlike monarch a degree of friendship and patronage highly creditable to him. He not only prevented them from being subjected to any annoyance, but even appointed one of them, Adam Schaal, to the post of superintendant of mathematics, a post at that time, of some importance in Germany, and one that gave opportunity, of which Schaal in the next reign very skilfully availed himself, of obtaining the highest influence in the state.

Shun-che, though an energetic man, as is evident by his warlike achievements, and a sensible man, as we may judge both from the favour he showed to learned foreigners, and the readiness with which he accepted of their instruction in many branches of learning, was, at the same time, somewhat of a sensualist. Towards the close of his life he devoted an undue portion of his time to pleasure, and his death, which took place in 1661, is said to have occurred through excess of grief, occasioned by the death of a favourite concubine; of which, had we not so many instances on record of human inconsistency, one would have supposed it impossible for a man of his stern and martial nature to be guilty.

Kang-he, who now ascended the throne, was a minor; four principal personages of the empire forming the regency. The German, Schaal, was appointed to the important post of principal tutor. Such was the influence Schaal acquired in this position, that he was virtually for some time prime minister of China. But the abilities of Schaal and the other missionaries, though they could raise them to power and influence, could not guard them from envy. The Chinese literati, and even the regents themselves, at length became excited to anger by the very learning they had availed themselves of, and by the influence it procured for the foreigners, through Schaal; for among the many services he had rendered to the state, it is said that on one occasion he actually preserved Macao from destruction. But envy was afoot, the most absurd charges were made against the missionaries, and they were at length deprived of all employment, while many of them were loaded with chains and thrown into prison. Schaal, who was now far advanced in years and very infirm, sank beneath his afflictions soon after their commencement, and died at the age of seventy-nine. It is much to the credit of the young emperor that he

had so well profited by the instructions of his foreign friends, that as soon as he attained his majority he restored them to their influence and appointments, the place of the deceased Schaal being bestowed upon the missionary Verbeist. We must, perhaps, blame rather the barbarous cruelty of his time and country, when we add, that on discovering that his four guardians and regents of the empire were the chief instigators of the disgrace and suffering that had been inflicted on the missionaries, he confirmed the horrid decree of the tribunal, which sentenced not only the offenders, but also their unfortunate families, to be cut into a thousand pieces.

We have previously alluded to the skill and courage evinced by the general Woo San-quei when the Mantchoo Tartars and the rebels caused so much misery to the empire; when the Mantchoo Tartars, after aiding him in putting down the rebels, had fairly established the Mantchoo dynasty upon the throne, the general was appointed governor of Kweichow and Yun-nan. His position in the north-west of the empire, discontent with his command, distinguished as it was, added, perhaps, to a natural restlessness and love of warfare, caused him now to levy war upon the neighbouring places. His military skill and his great resources speedily enabled him to make himself master of the southern and western provinces. His success was at once so great and so rapid, that the emperor and his court were thrown into consternation, and Verbeist, who among his numerous abilities included that of a founder of great guns, was applied to to superintend the casting of some. From some inexplicable motives he declined. To suppose a religious scruple, in the case of men so ambitious as the missionaries had shown themselves, and so pliable as they had been in far less justifiable courses on the part of the court, is difficult; and yet on no other ground can we reconcile Verbiest's refusal on this occasion with his sanity. Certain it is that he not only refused, but persisted in so doing, until significant hints showed him that his life would not be safe did he not comply with the emperor's wishes. Cannon were then cast, and the speedy consequence was, that Woo San-quei, who, probably, would in a brief space have been master of the capital and the throne, was beaten back within safe limits. Woo San-quei, after another unsuccessful endeavour at usurping the empire, died in 1679, and was succeeded in what remained of his power, by his son, who shortly after put an end to his own life.

In 1680 the Mongol Tartars assailed the emperor, but the cannon with which European skill in the great game of manslaughter had furnished him, enabled him to beat off these enemies with greater ease. He had the same success over the Elenths on the north-western frontier of the empire. Successful in war by the aid of the missionaries, he was no less so in commerce: the czar, Peter the Great, would in all probability, but for their mediation, have been prevented from concluding a peace with China; and though the commercial advantages which resulted from that peace were not immediate, they were vast and certain. As a whole, the reign of this emperor may be considered by far the noblest of all spoken of in his country's annals. As a military sovereign he will bear comparison even with the daring and hardy Kublai; while, like England's Elizabeth, he had the rare merit—scarcely inferior to genius itself—of skill in discovering genius, and of steady support to ministers possessing it, regardless of court intrigue and court jealousies. Canton, in his reign, even more than it has ever been in our time, was a port open to all nations, and by commerce with all nations was China enriched; and his people had real cause for grief when he died, in the year 1722.

Yung-ching, who now ascended the throne, began his reign by an act which held out but little hopes that he would distinguish himself by wisdom like that of his predecessor. It has been seen that in the preceding

reign the missionaries had performed the most important services. In doing so, and in enjoying the high imperial favour which those services secured to them, it was to be expected that they should incur many enmities; and had the new emperor been as wise as his predecessor, to such enmities would he have attributed the host of complaints which now assailed his ears. But the emperor was at least equal to any man in his vast dominions in fierce and bigoted hatred of Christianity; and he gladly received and implicitly listened to all complaints against the missionaries and their native converts, who at this time probably numbered a quarter of a million. Orders were issued for the expulsion of the whole of the missionaries, with the exception of a few whose mathematical attainments rendered their services of the utmost consequence to the court; and there were a few sheltered at the imminent risk of both parties by the more zealous of their pupils, and thus enabled to evade the edict and in some measure to preserve the leading truths of their teaching among the native converts. But it was a very insignificant number of these missionaries that remained in China owing to both these causes, and the whole of their chapels and stations were either sacked and destroyed by ferocious mobs, converted into public offices, or perverted to idolatrous worship. The excessive violence which this emperor displayed toward the catholic missionaries caused the king of Portugal in 1726 to dispatch an embassy to the emperor on their behalf. The ambassadors were received with distinction; but, though general promises were given even with profusion, the converts to Christianity derived not the slighest practical benefit from their interference on their behalf. The persecution of Christianity in China was, indeed, no exception to the general rule—for the more the persecution raged, the more numerous did the proselytes become. It would seem that the errors of their heathenism were in too many cases blended by the converts with the truths they were taught by the missionaries; and even the most intelligent of the higher classes were seen to worship the images of saints, as formerly they had had worshipped the idols of their native superstition. Christian charity demands that we should attribute this unfortunate confusion of ideas to the obstinate and ineradicable superstition of the converts, rather than to neglect or design on the part of the teachers.

Unhappily, in the year 1726 a new and more terrible persecution took place. Both torture and imprisonment, the former in most cases terminating, after the most frightful agonies, in the death of the sufferers, were now resorted to in every corner of the land where a Christian could be discovered. Deep policy, however, was mixed up with the vengeful spirit; and to avoid the persecution it was only necessary to declare reconversion to Confucius or Buddha. It may easily be supposed that, under such circumstances, the number of Christians was, nominally, at least, soon reduced to a mere handful. One of the causes of this terrible persecution was a dreadful famine which occurred in the previous year, and which was still attributed to the sin of conversion to Christianity. With the usual inconsistency of fanaticism, it was quite overlooked, that of the hundreds of thousands who perished, not one in a thousand had ever even heard of Christianity.

The year 1730 was marked by an event which Yung-ching's worst flatterers could not, after his two terrible persecutions of the Christians, venture to attribute to any undue encouragement of the new faith. The whole province of Pecheli—in which Pekin is situated—was shaken by an earthquake. The imperial city was for the most part laid in ruins; and the emperor, who was at the time walking in the garden, was violently thrown to the ground. In Pekin alone upwards of ten thousand souls perished by this lamentable occurrence, and at least thrice that number in other parts of the province. The emperor distributed upwards

of a quarter of a million of money for the relief of the survivors. The bigotry and cruelty of this prince can scarcely be excused on the plea of being ill-advised, for it is certain that he was personally aware of the great benefits that the calumniated and persecuted missionaries had conferred upon his people. The best that can be said of this reign is, that it was a peaceful one; and the interval of peace would have been infinitely more valuable than it was, had the Christians and their foreign and highly intelligent instructors been allowed to improve it to the best advantage. He died in the year 1735.

The throne was now filled by Keen-lung; whose first act was to recall the princes and courtiers who had been banished by his father. This done, he put down some revolts among the Elenths and other tribes on the north-western frontiers. Probably it was the vigour with which he executed this latter measure, that caused a deputation to be sent from Russia to settle the disputes which were perpetually breaking out as to the trade between the two countries. Ragusinki, who was at the head of the Russian embassy, acquitted himself with so much address, that he obtained a treaty by which a Russian caravan, not to exceed two hundred in number, was to visit China for the purposes of trade once in every three years; a church was to be erected; and a limited number of Russians were to take up their permanent abode in the Chinese capital for the purpose of acquiring the language. In this treaty, which is called "the treaty of Kiachta," the Chinese authorities, urged no doubt by sound considerations of mercantile profit, conceded much, yet they could not forbear from giving one characteristic specimen of their extreme jealousy of their national polity. Thus, though a caravan was permitted to visit the capital, it was to halt upon the frontiers until the arrival of the proper officer to conduct it through the emperor's people.

The next important event of this reign was the expedition sent by the emperor in 1767 against the Burmese. This expedition seems to have originated wholly in the most wanton lust of war on the part of the Chinese, who, in the sequel, were very deservedly punished. An army of above 100,000 men marched into Burmah; but no regular army appeared to oppose its progress. As it penetrated farther, however, every foot of country, and especially where swamp or jungle rendered the route naturally more difficult, had to be traversed with active and daring hordes of guerillas hovering upon its rear and flanks, cutting off stragglers, pouring down suddenly upon weak detachments or divisions—such as the very nature of the country made inevitable; and, in short, acting with such efficient destructiveness, that the Chinese lost upwards of 50,000 men without coming to a general engagement! Incredible as it would seem in European warfare, of the immense army of 100,000 men, only 2,000 returned to China—the rest were all killed or taken prisoners; and all in the latter category were naturalized and settled in Burmah. Even this horrible loss of life did not prevent the emperor from persisting in his unjust scheme. He sent a still greater force under his favourite general A-quei, who was as fond of war and as ferocious as himself. Choosing what he thought a less difficult line of march, A-quei had scarcely entered the Burmese territory when he found that if he had fewer human enemies to contend against than his predecessor, he had a still more deadly and irresistible enemy, the jungle fever. He saw his men perish around him by thousands, and he was glad to hasten from the deadly place with even a diminished army, rather than remain to see it wholly annihilated. And the result of all this loss was, that China was obliged to agree to a treaty which confined her dominion within her natural frontier, thereby giving to Burmah rich gold and silver mines which otherwise would have remained undisputed in the possession of China.

Keen-Lung was engaged in several minor warfares originating in en-

deavours of the more distant northern and western tribes to throw off their yoke. The Mahometan Tartars, a brave and bigoted race, made an inroad into the province of Shen-si; A-quei, who was sent against them, called upon them to surrender the city in which they had entrenched themselves, and, on being refused, took it by storm, and put every human being he found within the walls to the sword, save a few of the chiefs whom he sent to court. The emperor, whose blood-thirsty nature was such that he was accustomed to have criminals tortured in his presence, ordered these unhappy chiefs to be tortured before his assembled court, and then cut to peices and thrown to the dogs! Not content with this sanguinary act, the monster gave orders to A-quei to march upon the Mahometan Tartars, and put all to the sword who were above fifteen years of age. Many, very many, rebellions took place during this reign; among them was that of the people of the island of Formosa. The mandarins who acted as viceroys in this island were guilty of the most shameful exactions and cruelties. On one occasion they put to death a mandarin who had ill-treated them. The viceroy of Fuh-keen, being commissioned to avenge the death of the mandarin, sailed to the island and sacrificed victims to his manes, without regard to the guilt or innocence of those he immolated. The Formosans soon became so enraged that they rose *en masse*, butchered every Chinese and Tartar in the island, and were only at length induced to return to their yoke—after having bravely beaten off the imperial fleet—on being indemnified for their losses, and assured against a recurrence of the tyranny of which they complained. As though fairly wearied out with the strife of sixty years of perpetual warfares, Keen-lung abdicated the throne in favour of his son Kea-king. Though he never personally commanded his armies, he caused more bloodshed than probably any modern commander, with the exception of Napoleon.

Kea-king's first use of his power was to renew those persecutions of the catholics, which, in the last reign, had seemed to be falling into disuetude. Torture and death were the fate of many; still more were sentenced to wear the cangou or wooden collar during their lives, or were banished to Tartary, which last was a singularly impolitic punishment, as the Tartars needed no discontented men to incite them to revolt. A rebellion of a very threatening nature, inasmuch as some members of the imperial family, and other principal persons were concerned in it, was planned in 1803. By some fortunate accident, or, still more probably through the treachery of some of the confederates, the plot was discovered ere it was ripe for execution. Many of the principal conspirators were put to death, and others only escaped to suffer the confiscation of their property, which was peculiarly acceptable to the almost empty treasury of the emperor. In 1793 Lord Macartney was sent by George III. as ambassdor to China, to endeavour to establish trade with that country upon a better and surer footing, and more especially to obtain for the British factory a cessation of the insolence and extortion of the viceroy of Canton. The embassy was productive of but little good effect. The insolent and extortionate viceroy was recalled, it is true, but his predecessor was not long in office ere he went far beyond him in both of those bad qualities. The ambassador was blamed at home for having been too high and unbending in his demeanour; but the truth is, that the time had not come for a proper understanding to exist between the Chinese and any European nation.

When in 1808 it was feared that Bonaparte would aim at the eastern trade of Great Britain, Admiral Drury was ordered to Macao: but after much wordy disputation between the Chinese authorities there and the admiral, the latter retired after a slight collision. The Chinese pretended to have gained a great victory, a magniloquent account of the same

was sent to Pekin, and a pagoda actually erected to commemorate it. In 1816 another ambassador, Lord Amherst, was sent to China, but his mission was to the full as unsatisfactory as that of Lord Macartney. It was about this time that the opium speculation began to grow to something like a noticeable extent—but on that head we shall have to speak at length in the next chapter. After twenty five years' reign, marked far more by despotic temper than by the talent necessary to render it effective, Kea-king died, in the year 1820, and was succeeded by the present monarch.

CHAPTER V.

The reigning emperor of China, Taœu-kwang, is the second son of the preceding monarch, and owes his rise to the throne, in preference to his elder brother, to the great resolution and attachment to his father displayed by him on an occasion of a revolt. The parties concerned in it had proceeded to such an extent, that some of them actually forced their way into the palace with the avowed intention of putting Kea-king to death. Taœu-kwang, with a mere handful of the imperial guards, repulsed the conspirators, two of whom he shot with his own hand. Since his advancement to the throne, however, he has by no means displayed the vigour that might have been anticipated. He has for the most part committed the management of affairs to his ministers and favourites, and given himself up to effeminate pleasure in the seclusion of his palace.

The Mahometan inhabitants of eastern Turkestan and the Formosan islanders have revolted, but have hitherto been subdued. Their discontents, however, will probably at no distant time have great effect upon the destinies of the empire. The Chinese, to a man, are said to detest the Tartar race; and though the vast population of the empire would at first sight appear to render its subjugation now by any people an event of great improbability, the clashing opinions and interests of the constituent portions of the population may, at some future time, possibly render the vastness of the empire a principal cause of an entire alteration in both its political and religious condition. A strong proof that strength is not necessarily the consequence of the numerical superiority of China, was furnished a few years since. A serious revolt occurred in the province of Canton, where, from its facility of communication with "the outside barbarians," revolt was especially to be feared, and to be put down, whensoever occurring, with the sternest promptitude. But though the Celestial Empire boasts its standing army of a million of fighting men, the general Le, who was ordered to quell this revolt, could barely muster a few hundreds of ill-armed and ill-disciplined troops, and he was obliged to resort to the Chinese panacea of paying a pecuniary bribe to the rebels.

The trade of England as well as of all other nations, with China, has ever been subject to such restrictions, and been liable to so many interruptions, from the caprice of the Chinese and from the insolence with which these caprices have been acted upon, that it has of necessity from time to time very much partaken of the character of smuggling—even as regards articles to which no moral exception could by possibility be taken. During the memorable "opium" dispute, this fact seems to have been much neglected by many of the leading political writers of England. They have looked at the question rather as a moral than a political one, and have blamed political resistance to national insult, because that resistance happened to be made upon a point in which a moral question was artfully mixed up with it by the Chinese.

No sane man will pretend to vindicate the trading in opium otherwise

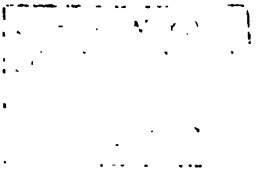
than as a very important article of materia medica; no one will say that it is otherwise than highly desirable that the use of this "insane" drug as a means of intoxication should be prohibited. But, we repeat, though collision with the Chinese has chanced to arise upon the question of the importation of opium, the moral consideration as to the sale and use of that drug are really quite beside the question: had the article of trade been Yorkshire cloth or Birmingham hardware, the same collision might have taken place.

Opium was imported into China as early as the 17th century, and it was not until the close of the 18th century that Kea-king prohibited it. We applaud him for doing this. It was high time to put some check on the use of it; for though it was professedly imported only as a medicinal drug, it was imported to the extent of 1000 chests per annum as early as 1767, and the importation had been perpetually increased in amount up to 1796. Up to this time, be it remembered, the traffic was strictly legal; it paid a duty of five mace per catty, and was for the most part delivered to and bonded by the government.

It is clear that from 1796 the trade in this drug was mere smuggling; equally clear, that whether John Tomkins or "The Company" was the trader, that trader was a smuggler. We will go farther. When the East India Company, having the monopoly of the eastern trade, compelled the ryots of Pekin to grow opium instead of rice, and compelled the ryots of divers other parts of the Anglo-Indian territory to do the same, the act was one which the English press ought loudly to have denounced, and which the English senate ought to have put a stop to, on pain of the loss of the Company's charter. All this is clear as noonday; but there is another consideration. The government of China is essentially paternal: from the emperor to the lowest office of his state link connects link, as from the father of a family to his youngest child or his nearest servant. The trade in opium was forbidden from time to time by edicts: true; but the very officers who were charged with the duty of enforcing these edicts were themselves the virtual importers of opium! Had the Chinese authorities of Canton and along the coast not connived at the trade for enormous bribes, or, as was more frequently the case, been themselves actual traders in the article, the trade would have been at an end years ago, and when only a comparatively small portion of British capital was involved in it.

It appears to us that the *public* prohibition of a drug of which the consumption was hourly increasing, and the aid given to its importation by the very persons appointed to carry that prohibition into effect, are merely "part and parcel" of the settled Chinese policy of fleecing barbarians to the utmost possible extent, on the one hand, and of always having a convenient pretext for such a stoppage in trade as circumstances might make convenient in the way of temporarily making the fleece longer and finer It would be an instructive lesson for politicians to con—the difference of profit to China, between the one hundred chests imported in 1776 at a fixed duty of five mace the catty, and that upon the forty thousand chests smuggled in 1840—at whatever profit the unscrupulous authorities could extort!

It was not until 1839 that anything in the shape of a real determination to put down the trade was exhibited by the Chinese; for the occasional stoppages of trade and blustering manifestos, as already said, we look at as mere measures for fleecing. Lin appeared at Canton, in that year, a "high commissioner"—an officer possessing almost dictatorial powers, and one who had not been more than thrice previously appointed during the present dynasty. In an edict he said, "I, the commissioner, am sworn to remove utterly this root of misery; nor will I let the foreign vessels have any offshoot left for the evil to bud forth again." The Brit-



ish commissioner and between two and three hundred British subjects were then thrown into a state of close confinement; the guards placed over them heaped every insult upon them, and threatened them with being deprived of provisions and water. Captain Elliot, the British superintendant, under such circumstances, saw no means of evading the demands of the Chinese; and upwards of twenty thousand chests of opium, valued at twenty millions of dollars, were delivered to commissioner Lin for destruction.

In 1840 war was declared by England against the Chinese. The leading events, however, which followed, being related in the history of that country, it would be superfluous to repeat them here. We will merely add what has transpired since that was written. All differences being finally adjusted, and his celestial majesty being on terms of the strictest amity with her Britannic majesty, a ratification of the treaty between the two countries was announced on the 27th of July, 1843. From that day the Hong merchants' monopoly and Consoo charges were to cease; and the conditions upon which trade was in future to be carried on, appeared in a notice issued by Sir Henry Pottinger, the British plenipotentiary in China; who published an export and import tariff, and also a proclamation in which he trusts that the commercial treaty will be found, in practice, mutually advantageous, beneficial and just, as regards the interests, honour, and the future augmented prosperity of the governments of the two mighty contracting empires and their subjects; and he "most solemnly and urgently calls upon all subjects of the British crown, not only to strictly conform and act up to the said provisions of the commercial treaty, but to spurn, decry, and make known to the world any base, unprincipled and traitorous overtures that may be made to them, towards entering into any collusion or scheme for the purpose of evading, or acting in contravention of, the said provisions of the commercial treaty."

In the proclamation issued by the imperial commission, after referring to the tariff, &c., it says, "Henceforth, then, the weapons of war shall ever be laid aside, and joy and profit shall be the perpetual lot of all; neither slight nor few will be the advantages reaped by the merchants alike of China and of foreign countries. From this time forward all must free themselves from prejudice and suspicions, pursuing each his proper avocation, and careful always to retain no inimical feelings from the recollection of the hostilities that have before taken place; for such feelings and recollections can have no other effect than to hinder the growth of a good understanding between the two people." It also contains a perfect amnesty, and the remission of punishment for all who have served the English soldiers with supplies, &c., in days past, and concludes by stating that, "From henceforward amity and good will shall ever continue, and those from afar, and those who are near, shall perpetually rejoice together."

THE HISTORY OF JAPAN.

Japan is a general name given, by Europeans, to a great number of islands, lying between the eastern coast of Asia and the western coast of America, and which together compose a large empire, extending from the 30th to the 41st degree of latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th degree

of east longitude. The inhabitants call this empire *Niphon*, which is the name of the largest island belonging to it. It was discovered by the Portuguese about the year 1452. The religion of the Japanese is paganism, divided into several sects, who live together in harmony. Every sect has its own temples and priests. The spiritual emperor, or *dairi-sama*, is the chief of their religion. They acknowledge and honour a Supreme Being; and the temples are open to every individual, whatever his creed or country. Christianity had once made a considerable progress in Japan, under the auspices of the Portuguese and Spanish Jesuits, among whom was the famous St. Francis Xavier; but it ended tragically, owing to an ill-conducted conspiracy of the fathers against the state. This proceeding produced a persecution of forty years' duration, and terminated by a most horrible massacre, scarcely to be paralleled in history. After this, not only the Portuguese, but Christians of every nation, were totally expelled the country, and the most effectual means taken for preventing their return.

In 1611, the Dutch had the liberty of a free commerce granted them by the imperial letters patent, and established a factory at Firando. They were then at war with Spain, and Portugal was at that time under the Spanish government. The former, by taking an homeward-bound Portuguese ship, found a traitorous letter to the king by a captain Moro, chief of the Portuguese in Japan. The Dutch immediately forwarded this letter to their protector, the prince of Firando. This letter laid open the whole plot which the Japanese Christians, in conjunction with the Portuguese, had laid against the emperor's life and throne. In consequence of this discovery, in the year 1637, an imperial order was sent to the governor of Nagasaki, to admit no more Portuguese into the empire.

Notwithstanding this proclamation, the Portuguese found means to carry on their trade two years longer, hoping to obtain leave to stay in the island of Desima, and there continue to trade; but they found themselves disappointed; for the emperor, on the assurance given him by the Dutch East India Company, that they would supply him in future with all the articles heretofore supplied by the Portuguese, declared them, and the Castilians, enemies of the empire; and they were totally expelled the country in 1640. Their extirpation, and with them the Christian religion, was so complete, that not a vestage can now be discerned of its having ever existed there.

The government of the Japan empire is an hereditary, absolute monarchy. The imperial dignity had been enjoyed, for a considerable time before the year 1500, by a regular succession of princes, under the title of *dairos*. Soon after that epoch, a civil war broke out, which lasted many years. During the destruction it occasioned, a common soldier, named Tayckoy, found means to raise himself to the imperial dignity, and the dairo was obliged to submit to terms. This revolution took place in 1517. Tayckoy reigned several years, during which he made excellent laws, which still subsist. At his death he left the crown to his son, Tayckossama, then a minor; but the treacherous prince under whose guardianship he was left, deprived him of his life before he became of age. By this murder the crown passed to the family of Jejassama, in which it still continues.

The Japanese must be placed rather among the polished nations than otherwise. Their mode of government, their skill in agriculture, in manufactures, arts, and sciences—their politeness, good-nature, prudence, frankness, and courage—entitle them to this distinction. They seem to possess nothing of the vanity of Asiatics and Africans; but are careful only to provide themselves, from the productions of their own country, with those necessaries and comforts of life, so desirable to enlightened human beings. The language of the Japanese has some affinity to the

Chinese; though it appears, from its various dialects, to have been a kind of compound of that and other languages, derived from the various nations that first peopled these islands. Their manner of writing, and their architecture, are similar to those of China.

The internal trade of Japan is very extensive, and their industry will bear comparison with that of the Hindoos, or even Chinese. Foreign commerce, however, is vigorously opposed by the government, in consequence of the supposed Portuguese treachery before mentioned, and the attempts of the Jesuit misionaries to Christianize the people. The number of Dutch vessels allowed to come each year, and the quantity of each description of wares to be sold, are strictly defined. The ships, immediately on their arrival, are strictly searched, and the crews are kept, during their stay in port, completely secluded from the natives; while all the business transactions are conducted by the Japanese, who also unload and re-load the vessels. Nay, so rigid are they in preventing their subjects from having intercouse with other nations, that it is a capital offence for the natives of Japan to travel into other countries; and their seamen even, when accidentally cast on foreign shores, are, on their return, subjected to vigorous examination, and sometimes tedious imprisonment, to purify them from the supposed pollution contracted abroad.

The cautious and ceremonious way in which the Japanese transact their business with the Dutch merchants is thus described:—About the time when the Dutch ships are expected, several outposts are stationed on the highest hills by the government; and they are provided with telescopes, and when seen at a distance, notice is given to the governor of Nagasaki. As soon as they anchor in the harbour, officers go on board with interpreters, to whom is delivered a chest, in which all the sailors' books, the muster-roll of the whole crew, six small barrels of powder, six barrels of balls, six muskets, six bayonets, six pistols, and six swords, are deposited. This is supposed to be the whole remaining ammunition, after the imperial garrison has been saluted. These things are conveyed on shore, and housed; but returned again on the day the ship quits the harbour.

The beginning of the year is the time observed for holidays, or days of leisure and enjoyment; and at this time the ceremony of trampling on images, representing the cross, and the virgin and child, is performed. The images are of copper, about a foot long. This ceremony is intended to impress every individual with hatred of the Christian doctrine, and the Portuguese, who attempted to introduce it; and also to discover whether any remnant of it is left among the Japanese. It is performed in the places where the Christians chiefly resided. In Nagasaki it lasts four days; then the images are carried to circumjacent places, and afterward are laid aside till the next year. Every person, except the Japanese governor and his attendants, even the smallest child, must be present.

The population of Japan is supposed to exceed fifty millions. The army in time of peace consists of one hundred thousand infantry, and twenty thousand cavalry: the force during the war being increased by levies from the different provinces to four hundred thousand infantry, and forty thousand cavalry. The arms used by the former are the musket, pike, bow, sabre, and dagger; those of the mounted troops, being the lance, sabre, and pistol. Their artillery is very inconsiderable.

THE EAST INDIA ISLANDS.

CEYLON.

CEYLON is a large island of the East Indies, separated from the continent by the Gulf of Manaar and Palk's Straits, near the southern extremity of Hindostan. It is two hundred and fifty miles in length from north to south, and averages about one hundred in breadth. The conquest of this island was the first attempt of Albuquerque, the celebrated Portuguese admiral. He found it well peopled, and inhabited by two different nations; the Bedas in the north, and the Cinglasses, or Singalese, in the south. The former were very barbarous; but the latter in some state of civilization. These, however, derived great advantage from the mines of precious stones, and also from their pearl fishery, the greatest in the East.

It is said that the proper name of the island is Singhala, and that part of the population called Singalese have a tradition that their ancestors came thither from the eastward nearly two thousand four hundred years ago; but many authors suppose them to be a colony of Singhs or Rajpoots, who arrived five hundred years B. C. From the ruins of cities, tanks, aqueducts, canals, bridges, temples, &c., at Trincomalee and other places, Ceylon has evidently been at some remote period a rich, populous, and comparatively civilized country. The Portuguese not only conquered, but tyrannized over them to such a degree, that they assisted the Dutch in expelling them from the island in 1658, after a bloody and obstinate war, by which all the Portuguese settlements fell into the hands of the Dutch East India Company.

The wars with the king of Candy, the most potent, if not the sole sovereign of the island, were very detrimental to Holland. In a sanguinary war, which ended in 1766, the Ceylonese monarch was driven from his capital, and the Dutch made a very advantageous treaty. Their sovereignty was acknowledged all over those parts of the country they possessed before the war, and that part of the coasts held by the natives was ceded to them. They were allowed to gather cinnamon in all the plains; and the court stipulated to sell them the best sort, which is produced in the mountains, at a very moderate price. The government also engaged to have no connection with any foreign power, and even to deliver up any Europeans who might happen to come into the island. In return for so many concessions the king was to receive annually the value of the produce of the ceded coasts; and from thence his subjects were to be furnished, gratis, with as much salt as they had occasion for. Matters were in this situation when the English attacked the Dutch in 1794, and conquered Trincomalee, and all their settlements in the island; and it afterward became a part of the price of the peace of Amiens in favour of England.

The English had no sooner taken possession, than they unhappily were involved in a war with the king of Candy, owing to some misunderstanding relative to certain articles of commerce; and the lives of many brave men were sacrificed to it; rather, however, by the treachery and bad faith of the Ceylonese king and his minister, than by fair and honourable warfare. The population of Ceylon, independently of the colonists who have at

various times possessed themselves of the coasts, consist of—1st, the native Singalese or Ceylonese, one branch occupying the Candyan territories, and the other the coasts; 2nd, the Veddahs, or aborigines, who, in an almost savage state, inhabited the mountainous regions and unexplored fastnesses; 3rd, the Moors, who are found in all parts of the island; and 4th, the Malabar and other Hindoos, who dwell chiefly on the northern and eastern coasts. Of all these races the Candyan Ceylonese differ least from Europeans in form, feature, and physical power. The Singalese are more timid and effeminate; but it may be observed that although some assume a haughty and independent bearing, yet indolence, deceit, and revenge are the generally prevailing qualities of these islanders. There are also some Caffres and Javanese, a few Chinese and Parsee traders, and a considerable number of English, Dutch, and Portuguese; besides a hybrid population from the intermixture of all these and the native races.

The upper classes among the Singalese profess Christianity, and many are converts to Mohammedanism; but the general religion is Buddhism. The government is vested in the hands of a British governor, assisted by a council of European civil servants; but all laws, before being acted upon, are published in the official gazette, for their general diffusion and translation into the native languages.

SUMATRA.

Sumatra is a large island in the Indian Ocean, being, next to Borneo, the largest in the eastern seas. It is about one thousand miles in length, from north-west to south-east; but in general, not more than one hundred and fifty in breadth. This is the first of the islands which form the great East India Archipelago; and it is separated from the peninsula beyond the Ganges by the straits of Malacca; which is the usual passage from the bay of Bengal and the Coromandel coast to Borneo or China, and, consequently to the Gulf of Siam, Cambodia, Cochin China and the Gulf of Tonquin.

Gold dust is an article of considerable traffic, and is brought by merchants from the interior to the sea-coast, where it is bartered for iron tools, and various kinds of East Indian and European manufactures of silk, cotton, broad-cloths, &c. But the most valuable and important production of the island is pepper, the average produce of which at this time is supposed to amount to thirty millions of pounds a year. Tumeric, cassia, ginger, coffee, and many kinds of scented woods are also produced here. After the capture of the Moluccas by the British, in 1796, the nutmeg and clove were introduced at Bencoolen, but though large quantities were raised, the quality was inferior to similar products obtained from Amboyna and the Banda isles. The Sumatran camphor is in high estimation. Cocoa-nut, betel, bamboo, sugar-cane, various palms, and an abundance of tropical fruits, are indigenous.

At Bencoolen, on the west side of Sumatra, is the English factory, belonging to the East India Company. The factory was once entirely deserted, through the frequent quarrels and bickerings of the natives and the English; and had not the former found that trade decreased in consequence of the absence of the latter, they never would have been invited to settle there again.

PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND.

Prince of Wales' Island, or Pulo Penany, is situated in the straits of Malacca, about two miles from the west coast of the Malay peninsula. The India Company in 1784, came to the resolution of establishing a settlement there. The island is about seventeen miles long, by ten broad: its northern extremity runs nearly parallel with the main land, at a distance of about two miles, by which a fine channel is formed, where the largest fleet may ride in perfect safety; the height of the surrounding mountains acting as a barrier against the force of the prevailing winds. In fact, the advantages attending this island, both in a political and commercial view, are obvious.

JAVA.

Java is a large island, extending in length nearly seven hundred miles, and averaging in breadth ninety; and it is separated from Sumatra by the strait of Sunda. Toward the close of the sixteenth century, Cornelius Houtman, a Dutchman, conducted four vessels to Java by the Cape of Good Hope; and his prudence procured him an interview with the principal king of the island; but the Portuguese created him some enemies. Having got the better in several skirmishes in which he was engaged, he returned with his small squadron to Holland, where, though he brought but little wealth, he raised much expectation. He brought away some Negroes, Chinese, and inhabitants of Malabar; a native of Malacca, a Japanese, and Abdul, a pilot of the Guzerat, a man of great abilities, and perfectly acquainted with the coasts of India.

The account given by Houtman encouraged the merchants of Amsterdam to form the plan of a settlement at Java, which, at the same time that it would throw the pepper trade into their hands, would place them also near the islands that produce the more valuable spices, and facilitate their communication with China and Japan. Admiral Van Neck was therefore sent on this important expedition with eight vessels, and arrived safe at Java, where he found the inhabitants prejudiced against his nation. They fought and negotiated by turns. At length they were permitted to trade, and, in a short time, loaded four vessels with spices and linens. The admiral, with his fleet, sailed to the Moluccas, where he learned that the natives of the country had forced the Portuguese to abandon some of the places in which they had settled, and that they only waited for a favourable opportunity of expelling them from the rest. He established factories in several of these islands, entered into a treaty with some of the kings, and returned to Europe laden with riches.

In 1602, the states-general formed the Dutch India Company. It was invested with authority to make peace or war with the eastern princes, to erect forts, maintain garrisons, and to nominate officers for the conduct of the police and the administration of justice. The company, which had no parallel in antiquity, and was the pattern of all succeeding societies of the kind, set out with great advantages; and, soon after its establishment, they fitted out for India fourteen ships and some yachts, under the command of Admiral Warwick, whom the Hollanders look upon as the founder of their commerce, and of their colonies, in the East. He built a factory in this island, and secured it by fortifications. He had frequent engagements with the Portuguese, in which he generally came off victorious. A sanguinary war was the consequence of these hostilities between the two nations, in which the Dutch were successful.

Batavia, which, from a small beginning, has become the capital of all the Dutch possessions in India, has one of the best and safest harbours in the world. The city is surrounded by a rampart twenty-one feet in thickness, covered on the outside with stone, and fortified with twenty-two bastions. This rampart is environed by a ditch, forty-three yards over, and full of water. The river Jucutra runs through the midst of the city, and forms fifteen canals of running water, adorned with evergreens. The inhabitants consist of Dutch, French, Portuguese, Javanese, Chinese, Malays, Negroes, and many others. Coffee, sugar and spices are produced here in great abundance: and, together, it may be said to be one of the most valuable colonies belonging to any European nation. The island was taken by a British force from India in 1811, and held till 1816, when it was restored to the Dutch.

BORNEO.

Borneo is one of the largest islands in the world, being fifteen hundred miles in circumference. It is seated under the equator, and occupies nearly the centre of the eastern archipelago. The west and north-east sides of it are a desert, and the east is comparatively little known. The inland parts are mountainous; and the south-east, for many leagues together, is an unwholesome morass.

The Portuguese, who first discovered Borneo, had been in the Indies thirty years before they knew anything of it more than the name and its situation, by reason of their frequently passing by its coast. At length Captain Edward Corral had orders to examine it with attention. From thence becoming acquainted with its worth, they made frequent voyages thither. They found the coast inhabited by Malayan Moors, who had certainly established themselves there by conquest; but the interior and part of the north-west coast are peopled by a savage race, believed to be the aborigines, and called Dyaks. They use long shallow canoes hollowed out of a single tree; and kill wild animals for their food, by shooting them with arrows blown through a tube. They wear very little clothing, and have all the habits and superstitions of the most savage tribes. Borneo is rich in valuable minerals, and it is the only island of the eastern archipelago where diamonds are found. The climate is similar to that of Ceylon, and those parts of the island which are under cultivation are decidedly fertile.

CELEBES.

This is a large island, under the equator; the length and breath have not been accurately computed; but the circumference, taken at a medium, is about eight hundred miles. The principal Dutch settlement is Macassar, which contains Fort Rotterdam, the residence of the governor: they have also a fort at a place called Jampandam.

There are several independent tribes or nations of Celebes, each having their peculiar form of government. Among them the Tuwadju tribe, inhabiting the body of the island, are distinguished as an enterprising and ingenious people. Thefts, robberies, and murder are common with all the tribes. The island was taken by the British in 1814, but restored to Holland in 1816.

THE MOLUCCAS, OR SPICE ISLANDS.

These consist of Amboyna, Ternate, Fedor, Motyr, Cilolo, and several other small islands. The Portuguese were the first Europeans who possessed them, but were obliged to share their advantages with the Spaniards, and at length to give up the trade almost entirely to them. These two nations joined to oppose the Dutch in their first attempts to gain a settlement; but the Dutch, assisted by the natives of the country, by degrees gained the superiority. The ancient conquerors were driven out about the year 1615, and their place supplied by others equally avaricious, though less turbulent.

As soon as the Dutch had established themselves in the Moluccas, they endeavoured to get the exclusive trade of spices into their own hands; an advantage which the nations they had just expelled were never able to procure. They skilfully availed themselves of the forts they had taken, and those they had erected, to draw the kings of Ternate and Tydor, who were masters of this archipelago, into their schemes. These princes, for a small sum of money, (little more than £3000) agreed to root out all the clove and nutmeg trees in the islands under their dominions; and a garrison of seven hundred men was appointed to secure the performance of the treaty.

At Amboyna they engrossed the whole cultivation of cloves. They allotted to the inhabitants four thousand parcels of land, on each of which they were compelled to plant one hundred and twenty-five trees, amounting, in the whole, to five hundred thousand: and the collective produce averages about one million of pounds. Amboyna is about thirty-two miles long and ten broad, and is divided into two parts, a greater and a lesser peninsula: the former is called Hiton, and the latter, Letymor.

The massacre of the English at Amboyna, by the Dutch, in 1621, was attended with much cruelty. We have before observed, that the Dutch dispossessed the Portuguese of Amboyna in 1615. They did not, however, become masters of the island at once. The English had here five factories, and lived under the protection of the Dutch castle; holding themselves safe, in respect of the friendship existing between the two nations. But great differences arose between the English and Dutch colonists; at length a treaty was concluded, in 1619, by which the concerns of both were regulated, and certain measures agreed upon for preventing future disputes. Some short time after, the Dutch pretended that the English and Amboynese had formed a conspiracy to dispossess them of one of their forts. The plot, it was alleged, had been discovered by a Japanese and Portuguese in the English service, who were most inhumanly tortured into such confessions as their cruel inquisitors thought proper. Upon this evidence, they immediately accused the English factors of the pretended conspiracy. Some of them they imprisoned; and others they loaded with irons, and sent on board their ships; seizing at the same time all the English merchandise, with their writings and books. These acts of violence were followed by a scene of horror unexampled in the punishment of offenders. The torments to which they put the innocent factors, are too shocking to relate; and those who did not die under the agonies of pain, were consigned to the executioner. The whole of the transaction affords testimony that the Hollanders did it with no other view, than of monopolizing the trade of the Spice Islands. They acted a similar tragedy at Poleron, about the same time, where they put to the torture one hundred and sixty-two of the natives, whom they likewise charged with a pretended conspiracy. Until the French revolutionary war, then, the Dutch enjoyed in peace these invaluable islands, when Amboyna, and the other Moluccas, submitted to the English.

THE BANDA, OR NUTMEG ISLES.

The Banda Isles is the general name of twelve small islands in the East Indian Archipelago. Two of them are uncultivated, and almost uninhabited; the other three claim the distinction of being the only islands in the world that prodcce the nutmeg. If we except this valuable spice, the islands of Banda are barren to a dreadful degree. The land will not produce any kind of corn, and the pith of the sago serves the natives of the country instead of bread.

This is the only settlement in the East Indian isles, that can be considered as a European colony: because it is the only one where the Europeans are proprietors of lands. The Dutch company finding that the inhabitants of Banda were savage, cruel, and treacherous, because they were impatient under their yoke, resolved to exterminate them: and their possessions were divided among the people, who procured slaves from some of the neighbouring islands to cultivate the lands. The climate of Banda is particularly unhealthy; on which account the company attempted to transfer the culture of the nutmeg to Amboyna: but all the experiments that have been made have proved unsuccessful. The Banda Islands were discovered by the Portuguese in 1512, and colonized in 1524; but were taken by the Dutch in 1599. The English possessed themselves of them in 1810, but restored them to the Dutch in 1814.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The Philippine Islands are a large group belonging to the eastern archipelago, the principal of which is Luzon, a long, irregular, and narrow island. They were discovered by Magellan, in 1521, who called them the archipelago of St. Lazarus, as the discovery was made on that saint's day. But they were subjected, or rather part of them, to the Spaniards, by Don Louis de Velasco, in 1564, in the reign of Philip II., and derive their present name from him. The natives are supposed to be of Chinese extraction.

Manilla, the capital of the island of Luzon, and all the Philippines, is situated on the south-east part of the island, where a large river falls into the sea, and forms a noble bay, thirty leagues in compass. On the 6th of October, 1762, the English under General Draper and Admiral Cornish, took Manilla by storm, after a siege of twelve days; but, to save so fine a city from destruction, they agreed to accept a ransom, amounting to a million of pounds sterling, part of which, it is said, was never paid.

THE HISTORY OF PALESTINE,

AND, MORE PARTICULARLY OF

THE JEWS.

By the various names of Hebrews, Israelites, or Jews, were this most illustrious people of ancient times known, who dwelt in the land then

called Canaan. Contrary to the obscurity in which the origin of other nations is veiled, we have the evidence of Holy Writ for the rise, progress, decline and fall of the Jews. They deduced their descent from Arphaxad the son of Shem; and we have it on record that Abraham, the sixth in descent from Eber, the grandson of Arphaxad, dwelt in Assyria, but removed into Canaan or Palestine, with his family, to the intent that the true religion of God should be preserved by them, his "chosen people" amid the corruptions of the idolaters by whom they were surrounded.

The period of which we are now speaking was about two thousand years before the birth of Christ. At that time the inhabitants of Mesopotamia and Syria appear to have been partly nomadic, or wandering, like the Tartars or Scythians; for we find that Abraham and his descendants sojourned in different parts of Canaan and Egypt, until the time of their protracted residence in the latter country. Abraham at his death transmitted the inheritance of the "promised land" to his son Isaac; and Isaac was succeeded in the patriarchate by his younger son Jacob, also called Israel. Jacob had twelve sons; the descendants of whom remaining distinct, constituted the twelve tribes of the Israelites in after-time. Joseph, the youngest but one of these sons, having unconsciously excited the jealousy of the rest, was sold by them as a slave, to some Arabian merchants, and carried into Egypt; there, as we read, he became known to the king, and was made his chief minister; and in a time of famine, for which his foresight had provided, he was the happy means of providing his aged father and the whole of his family an asylum in the fertile district of Goshen (B. C. 1702).

The pathetic and interesting story of "Joseph and his brethren," as narrated in the Bible, requires no comment in this place; but, we may, perhaps, be allowed slightly to digress, in order to illustrate the case of Joseph's memorable rise from the condition of a slave to that of the chief ruler of Pharaoh's household. European notions of slavery very naturally picture to the mind all that is horrible, cruel, and revolting; and it would seem next to an impossibility that, by any chance, one so helpless and degraded as a slave could become an officer of trust, or—more wonderful still—the chief minister and adviser of a monarch of a mighty kingdom. It is, however, remarked by Marshal Marmont, who some years ago travelled through Turkey, &c., and who evidently paid great attention to the condition of the people, and the customs of the countries he visited, that slaves in the East are far from being in the condition we might suppose; and it is therefore not unreasonable to believe that the kindness with which they are treated at the present day is derived from immemorial custom. He observes, "the most docile slave rejects with indignation any order that is not personally given him by his master; and he feels himself placed immeasurably above the level of a free or hired servant. He is a child of the house; and it is not unusual to see a Turk entertain so strong a predilection for a slave he has purchased, as to prefer him to his own son. He often overloads him with favors, gives him his confidence, and raises his position; and, when the master is powerful, opens to his slave the path of honour and public employment."

As peaceful dwellers in the rich and fertile valleys of Goshen, the Israelites in process of time became sufficiently numerous to excite the envious alarm of the Egyptians; and they accordingly underwent many persecutions, until the Almighty raised up Moses as their deliverer. The miracles he was empowered to work, the murmurings and backslidings of the people, their idolatrous propensities, and all other particulars relative to them while travelling through the parched and arid deserts of Arabia, form interesting portions of the sacred volume; we shall therefore pass on briefly to the death of Moses, and the delegation of power to Joshua, the acknowledged chief of the Jewish nation, B. C. 1451. Joshua was

now ninety-three years of age, and had under his command six hundred thousand men capable of bearing arms, besides the aged and infirm women, children, and servants. On every side were warlike nations, some of them represented as containing men of gigantic stature and immense personal prowess; their towns were well fortified, and every necessary preparation had been made to repel invasion. The veteran leader was, however, undismayed; and relying on that protecting Power who had delivered the people from Egyptian bondage, and brought them safely to the frontiers of Canaan, he went on "conquering and to conquer." At length, after subduing the "promised land," and establishing its tranquility he divided it among the twelve tribes; charging them, at the same time, to give a tenth part of their goods to the tribe of Levi, who were consecrated solely for the priesthood: and hence proceeds the origin of tithes. Having ruled Palestine as wisely as he had conquered it bravely, and being an hundred and ten years old, the aged warrior resigned his breath.

Joshua was no sooner dead than the Jews gave themselves up to anarchy, by which means they shortly fell under the power of Cushan, king of Mesopotamia. After a servitude of eight years, Othoneel became judge of Israel; at whose death, Eglon, king of Moab, reduced them to his obedience; and under his yoke they continued eighteen years. Ehud then ruled as judge of Israel, in whose time they fell under the government of Jabin, king of Canaan, who held them twenty-nine years; when Deborah and Barak, jointly, judged Israel for thirty-three years. A fourth servitude, of seven years, then followed under the Midianites. Then Gideon and his successors, to Jair, ruled Israel as judges thirty-six years; when in the fifteenth year of Jair, the fifth servitude commenced, under the Philistines and the Ammonites. Jephtha succeeded as judge, and was followed in his office by four successors, the last of whom was Samson, (whose superhuman strength was exerted with such terrible effect on his enemies, the Philistines). In his time, however, the Israelites fell again under their oppressor's yoke, and were ruled by them forty years. Eli then became judge, who being nearly a hundred years old, his two sons, Hophni and Phineas, who acted under him, took advantage of his weakness to commit the most profligate abominations. They were, notwithstanding, by no means deficient in bravery: but having sustained a great defeat by the Philistines, in which they lost their lives and the sacred ark, their aged parent was so overcome on hearing the fatal tidings, that he fell backward from his chair and instantly expired. Samuel, at that time but a youth, though divinely inspired, was then chosen judge of Israel; and during the latter part of his administration, the land was in a more peaceful state than it had been for many previous years.

When Samuel had been judge of Israel about twenty years, the people, wishing to imitate the example of their neighbours, demanded that they should have a king to rule over them. Samuel accordingly selected Saul for that high office, and on presenting him for their acceptance, "all the people shouted and said, God save the king!" Although many of the Israelites were afterwards discontented with having a king who had been their companion and equal, the numerous proofs which Saul gave of his military qualifications checked their murmurs. He attacked and defeated the forces of the different nations who harassed the frontiers of his kingdom, and took signal vengeance of their old and implacable enemies, the Philistines. As a warlike monarch he reigned with glory, but put an end to his life.

The judges of Israel are to be considered the defenders of religion, and the protectors of the laws; they decided upon war and peace, and were at all times magistrates and warriors. Saul was succeeded by David, a shepherd of the tribe of Judah, under whom the government gained considerable strength. He was succeeded by Solomon, his son, celebrated

for his wisdom and his magnificence: he rendered the people happy by continual peace, and the encouragement of commerce; he had the reputation of being a wise prince, and his writings and his laws were received and esteemed in the most distant countries, with all that veneration they deserved. His son, Rehoboam, an insensible despot, ruled the Israelites with an iron rod. Ten of the tribes separated themselves from the government, and chose Jeroboam for their king. Palestine now became two kingdoms; the one called Judah, and the other Israel. A difference in religion was soon after introduced; that called the Samaritan or Israelite, was embraced by the ten tribes; while Judah and Benjamin kept to the ancient usage of their forefathers.

Under Hosea, king of Israel, the ten tribes were carried away captive to Nineveh, by Salmanezer. Nebuchadnezzar very soon placed the people of Judah in the like unhappy situation of the people of Israel. After having conquered Jerusalem, he transported them to Babylon, the capital of his empire. This captivity lasted seventy years, when Cyrus gave them the liberty of returning to their country. Great numbers accepted the offer, conducted by Zerubabel, Nehemiah, and Esdras. They re-built Jerusalem and the temple. They re-established their state, and lived under their own laws, paying a small tribute to the kings of Persia; and suffered idolatry no more to supplant their devotion to the true God. The Jews were subject to the kings of Persia at the time Alexander made his conquest of that empire. At his death, his vast dominions were divided between his principal captains, and the king of Syria had a part of Judea: but lying, as it were, upon the frontiers of both Syria and Egypt, it suffered severely from alternate invasions. Jerusalem, after the Babylonian captivity, had no particular governors who took upon themselves the title of king; the high priests held the interior administration, and were respected as much as if they had actually been in possession of the the throne.

Ptolemy Soter besieged Jerusalem, and carried away one hundred thousand captives, whom he dispersed through Egypt, Libya, and the country about Cyrene, where their posterity for many centuries after continued to exist. During this period, Simon surnamed the Just, was high-priest; a man not less remarkable for his merits as a governor, than for his eminent piety. Under his direction the canon of the Old Testament was completed, and thenceforward transmitted to future generations without further revisal: B. C. 202. It was about this time that the sect of the Sadducees arose, who denied the existence of a future state. They were, however, inferior in numbers and popularity to the Pharisees, who entertained a decided belief in the resurrection, and in the doctrine of future rewards and punishments. Under the patronage of Ptolemy Philadelphus, the Hebrew Scriptures were translated into Greek, for the benefit of the Jews residing in Egypt. This version is usually called the Septuagint, because, according to tradition, the translation was entrusted to seventy persons.

The situation of the Jews under the Syrians was various. Antiochus Epiphanes, wishing to alter their religious opinions, took the power of the disposal of the high-priesthood into his own hands, which he alternately disposed of, and dispossessed, according to his caprice. He pillaged the temple, and put Eleazer to death; and also the seven brothers, Maccabees, with their mother. He also caused to be put the sword, on the sabbath-day, all those that had assembled together for the purpose of devotion. This cruel and unjust persecution caused the Jews to rebel: they were headed by Mattathias; and, after his death, by his son, the celebrated Judas Maccabeus, the defender of the religion, and the saviour of his country. That hero being killed in battle, was succeeded by Jonathan, who united in himself the spiritual and temporal powers. His brother Simon

succeeded, and was equally celebrated for his wisdom as his virtues, and was the first of his nation who had governed Judea peaceably and absolutely, since the return from Babylon. He was killed at a banquet, and was succeeded by his son, John Hyrcanus, who was succeeded by Judas, surnamed Aristobulus, assuming to himself the title of king.

Alexander Jannæus was the next king, a hero very little inferior to David. He left two sons, Hyrcanus and Aristobulus. The former held the sceptre during the life of Alexandra, his mother; but soon after the death of that princess, Aristobulus declared war against his brother, and deprived him of his kingdom.

Judea having become a Roman province, Pompey the Great, its conqueror, re-established Hyrcanus in the government, and took with him Aristobulus to Rome, to heighten the glory of his triumph. Phraates, king of Parthia, deposed Hyrcanus, and put in his place Antigonus, son of Aristobulus. Soon after Herod, surnamed the Great, an Idumean by birth, and patronised by Anthony, obtained permission from the Romans to assume the title of king of the Jews. This prince, although a tyrant to his subjects and to his family, added lustre to the Jewish nation; he repaired Jerusalem, rebuilt the temple, and procured to himself successively the favour of Cassius, Cæsar, Antony, and Octavius; augmenting his power by the art which he possessed of pleasing those of whom he held his crown. In this reign Jesus Christ was born.

After the death of Herod, Augustus divided the government of Judea between the sons of Herod: he bestowed one half upon Archelaus, and the other half upon Herod-Antipas and Philip. Nine years afterwards, Augustus, being dissatisfied with their conduct, sent them into exile, and placed the government of Judea under the pro-consul of Syria.

The governors appointed by the Romans over the Jews were for the most part tyrants, which served to strengthen in them the propensity for revolt. They had been taught that a descendant of the house of David should deliver them from oppression; they believed that the time was nearly arrived, and their insolence increased as the fulfilment of the prediction, in their opinion, drew near. They were almost in continual sedition; and although severely punished for their turbulence, their ardour in a cause wherein they supposed their own liberties, and those of their posterity depended, was not in the least diminished.

In the year 66 after Christ, the standard of revolt was set up. Jerusalem was besieged by Cestius, whom the Jews compelled to retire. Nero, who was then in Achaia, no sooner heard of that event, than he sent Vespasian into Palestine, for the purpose of effecting that conquest which Cestius had been found unequal to obtain. Vespasian, who had already distinguished himself in Germany and Britain, entered this devoted country with a well-disciplined army; and as he encountered everywhere a fierce resistance, he put to the sword men, women, and children. All the cities and towns that lay in the way of his march, were taken and plundered. Those persons who escaped the cruelty of the conqueror, fled to Jerusalem, then in the hands of two furious parties, each of whom persecuted their opponents with unfeeling cruelty. Civil war and assassination became the consequence of their unbridled rage, and the priests themselves were not exempt from the popular fury.

The siege of Jerusalem was suspended by the death of Nero. Three emperors mounted the throne; Galba, Otho, and Vitellius; all of whom died violent deaths. At length Vespasian was elected to the purple. He immediately sent his son, Titus, to Jerusalem, to finish the war which he had so successfully begun. Titus having arrived before Jerusalem previous to the feast of Easter, took his station on the mount of Olives, and, investing the city, he surrounded it with a wall, flanked with thirty towers. The magazines had been destroyed by fire, and a most cruel famine

raged within the city; but, notwithstanding their terrible situation, the besieged refused the advantageous conditions offered to them by the Roman general. At length he became master of the city, which was nearly reduced to ashes, and also of the temple. A scene of butchery then commenced, and was continued for several days, until Jerusalem was left altogether desolate.

According to Josephus, eleven hundred thousand persons perished during the siege, and at the capture; and those that were taken prisoners were made slaves. The misfortunes of Jerusalem were not confined to the Jews of that city, but extended to the whole of that people under the Roman power; some were thrown to ferocious beasts at the public games, and others sold into bondage. The sufferings, indeed, of the devoted inhabitants, fraught as some of the scenes are with thrilling interest, are such as humanity shudders to contemplate, and over which pity is glad to throw a veil.

THE STATE OF THE JEWS SINCE THE DESTRUCTION OF JERUSALEM.

The Jews, obliged to quit their country, irritated and provoked by the cruel treatment they had received, meditated to avenge themselves of their enemies. They began to put their murderous designs into execution at the city of Cyrene, in Lybia, and in the island of Cyprus, where, since their flight, they had increased considerably. They were headed by an enterprising but artful man, named Andrew, under whom they not only committed the greatest excesses, but also gained some advantages over the Egyptians, and even over the Romans? The emperor Trajan found himself obliged to march an army against them; but they were not reduced until after several engagements, maintained with the greatest obstinacy; they were at length overcome, and were treated by the Romans rather as enemies of the human race, than as rebels against the power of Rome. Lybia became so far depopulated in this conflict, that the Romans deemed it necessary to send a colony to repeople the waste.

The Jews, notwithstanding their recent misfortunes in Palestine, again revolted. Adrian, the successor of Trajan, sent Julius Severus against them. This general (according to Dion), killed five hundred and eighty thousand in different battles; and, he further asserts, they could not reckon those that perished by famine, or otherwise; so that very few Jews escaped in this war. They razed (continues Dion), fifty fortified castles, pillaged and burnt nine hundred and ninety-five cities and towns, and made such a general massacre of the inhabitants through the country, that all Judea was in a manner converted into a desert. Before this massacre, the number of Jews, according to calculations made under Nero, and estimating those destroyed under Titus, amounted to two million five hundred and forty-six thousand persons. Adrian, after having ruined and massacred the greatest part of the remaining number, prohibited, by a solemn edict, confirmed in the senate, any of those that had escaped the sword, from returning into their own country; and from that time this unfortunate people have been entirely dispersed.

Notwithstanding the prodigious numbers which perished in the succes sive overthrows of the Jewish nation, it is clear that very considerable colonies of them settled in different countries, as the travels of the apostles alone amply testify. In Rome, Alexandria, and many other places, there were flourishing communities. Some devoted themselves to the cultivation of the arts and sciences, others pursued handicraft trades, many practised as physicians, but most of them turned their attention to commercial speculations, and soon became notorious for their wealth and

overreaching cupidity. In the fifth century they were banished from Alexandria, where they had been established from the time of Alexander. They rendered themselves the ridicule of all nations by their enthusiasm in favour of a false Messiah, who appeared at the time in Candia. This impostor, who was named Moses, and pretended to be the ancient legislator of the Jews, asserted that he had descended from Heaven, in order to enable the children of Abraham to enter the Land of Promise.

A new revolt in Palestine, in the sixth century, served to show the turbulent disposition of the Jewish race, and the increase of the massacres of that people. Phocias drove them from Antioch, and Heraclius from Jerusalem. While some of the scattered families resorted to Egypt, Babylon, and other polished countries in the East, there were others who settled in Arabia, penetrated to China, or wandered over the European continent. But many still remained in Palestine. After the conversion of the Roman empire to Christianity, Judea became an object of religious veneration, and the empress Helena repaired thither in pilgrimage, and built various splendid temples. A crowd of pilgrims resorted thither subsequently from every part of the world; the most numerous arriving from the west, over which the church of Rome had fully established its domination. In the commencement of the sixth century, however, an entire change took place. Judea was among the countries first exposed to the fanatical followers of Mahomet, and soon fell under their sway. But when the Turks poured in from the north, they no longer observed the same courtesy. They profaned the holy places, and the intelligence of their outrages being conveyed to Europe, roused the religious spirit of the age into those expeditions called the crusades. All Europe seemed to pour itself upon Asia; the Saracen armies were routed, Jerusalem taken by storm, and its garrison put to the sword. The leader of the first crusade, Godfrey of Bouillon, was made king; and a petty Christian sovereignty established, which endured for above eighty years; the Holy Land continually streaming with the blood of Christian and Saracen. The Mahometan states, whose resources were all at hand, gradually, however, regained the ascendancy. In 1187 Judea was conquered by Saladin; on the decline of whose kingdom it passed through various hands, till, in the 16th century, it was eventually swallowed up in the Turkish empire.

Great calamities to the Jews occurred during the crusades. Wherever the fanatical soldiers who were on their way to Palestine passed, they pillaged and murdered the scattered inhabitants of the once happy land of Canaan, and the people of the nations among whom they dwelt robbed them of their valuables without remorse. The persecution was general, their furious enemies endeavouring, as it were, to extirpate the very name of Israel. It should be observed, however, that both Mahometans and Jews being animated by a like hatred of the Christians, we often find them acting in concert, especially during the Saracenic conquest of Africa and Spain. Nay, under the rule of the Spanish Moslems, the Jews not only enjoyed toleration, but they cultivated science, and were entrusted with the high offices of state.

In the twelfth century, Philip Augustus, king of France, banished them twice from his kingdom; and during the reign of Philip le Bel, they were accused, and not without justice, of cruel exactions and usurious extortions. They were also accused with having committed outrages against the host, of having crucified children on Good Friday, of having insulted the image of Jesus Christ, &c. They were put into the hands of the judges; and, although no proof whatever was brought forward to substantiate their guilt, they were delivered over to the populace to be dealt with according to their pleasure. Philip banished them entirely from France in 1308, and confiscated all their effects. Louis X., his successor, permitted them to re-establish themselves in his kingdom,

on condition of their paying him a large sum of money. In the reign of Philip the Long, brother and successor of Louis, they were massacred and pillaged. In 1895, Charles V. banished them and confiscated all their property. This was their fourth and last banishment. In 1393 they experienced in Germany a treatment similar to that which they had received in France. In Castile they purchased their peace at a high price; but in Catalonia, Arragon, and the other parts of Spain, they were most horribly persecuted, and nearly two hundred thousand of them were compelled to embrace the Christian religion, or at least appear so to do.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the Jews established in Portugal underwent all the mischief with which Moses menaced their nation. In 1506, during three days successively, they were barbarously massacred at Lisbon: yet as if not content with taking away their lives, they took those among them whom they had mutilated or mortally wounded and burnt them by heaps in the public squares. Two thousand perished in this manner. The fathers not daring to weep for their children nor the children for their fathers, they were mutually overcome by despair on seeing each other dragged away to torment. In the eighth century we find them the property of the Anglo-Saxon kings, who seem to have exercised absolute power over both their lives and goods. In this abject state they remained under the Norman princes and the early Plantaganets, who harassed them by the most cruel exactions, and often treated them with great barbarity. In proof of this, we need only refer to the reigns of Richard I., John, Henry III., and Edward I. If we pursue their history in other European countries, we shall find that if we except the Italian republics, and Spain while under the dominion of its Arab conquerors, the Jews everywhere found themselves the objects of persecution. On the introduction of the Inquisition into Spain and Portugual, that dread tribunal condemned thousands to the flames, before it commenced its diabolical proceedings against those Christians who differed from the see of Rome: and it was not until the Protestant states were strong enough to break asunder the shackles of religious intolerance, that the Jew had any chance of ensuring his personal safety.

We thus see that in different ages the Jews have suffered the most dreadful persecutions and massacres: but though the annihilation of the race seemed inevitable, their numbers were still very considerable; and they exercised then, as they do at the present time, no little influence in the affairs of civilized nations. Since arts and learning have revived in Europe, they have felt the benefit of that humane enlightenment, which has extended all over the globe. France, Holland, Austria, and most of the German states, allow them the rights of citizenship; England and Prussia tolerate and protect them; in many of the British colonies they are among the principal merchants and traders; and in Italy, Spain, and Portugal, they are at least suffered to reside unmolested. The attention of the British nation has of late years been particularly directed towards the improvement of their political condition and their conversion to Christianity. But upon the latter topic, as well as the probable restoration of the Jews to the land of their fathers, it is not necessary to offer an opinion; both are concealed from mortal ken by the impenetrable veil which enwraps futurity.

ARMENIA.

The ancient history of this large and warlike people is connected with that of the several mighty nations who in turn filled the world with the terror of their names. Its first king appears to have been Scython, the next Barzanes, after whose death the kingdom was divided into several

petty kingdoms. The Medes under Astyages subsequently subdued Armenia, which was reduced to a province under Persian governors. It was afterwards divided into Major and Minor by Artarias and Zadriades, who having united their forces, established each himself in his respective province, independent of his master; the former possessing Armenia Major, the other Minor. They were contemporary with Hannibal, who planned for Artarias the celebrated town of Artarata. Assisted by the Roman alliance, these usurpers maintained their power in spite of the several attacks of their former master, Antiochus. After their death, the Armenians suffered considerable loss in a war with the Parthians. Marc Antony put Artavardes, the sovereign of Armenia, to death, to make room for Alexander, his own son by Cleopatra; others say that he led him captive to Rome in golden chains. Trajan reduced Armenia to a Roman province; but in the reign of Constantine the Great, and his successor, it had its own kings, dependent on the emperor. Although St. Bartholomew is said to have introduced Christianity into Armenia, there can be no doubt that it was Christian in the beginning of the fourth century. The Saracens subdued it in A. D. 687, who gave way to the Turks about a century afterwards. It was then called Turcomania.

Armenia partially recovered its independence, but was again subdued by Occadan or Heccate, son of Genghis, first khan of the Tartars. A remnant of the royal family of Armenia still remained; and we find one of them, Leo, came to England to solicit the aid of Richard II. against the Turks, by whom he had been expelled from his throne. Armenia was again made a province of the Persian empire in 1572. Selim II. reduced it to a Turkish province, in 1522; the greater part of which still remains subject to the Crescent.

ALBANIA.

ALBANIA was nominally a province of the Turkish empire. Its history is diversified, and mixed up with the various fortunes of the surrounding nations. Looked upon as barbarous by the Greeks and Romans, because very slightly explored by them, Albania, better known to those celebrated people as Illyricum, and Epirus, still retains the simplicity of primitive habits, so that it is emphatically called the Scythia of the Turkish empire. The ancient historians describe the inhabitants of this country as peculiarly fierce and intractable. The remoteness of its situation, and want of union among the several tribes which inhabited the country of Albania, rendered the valour of its people of little consequence to the general affairs of Greece, and accordingly we find them but slightly mixed up with Grecian politics. Under the conduct of Pyrrhus II., one of the most consummate generals of antiquity, who waged a bloody war with the Romans in Italy, the Albanians, or Epirotes, routed Antigonus, king of Macedonia, and held that country in subjection; but their conquest ended with the death of their commander, and they in turn fell under the power of the Macedonians.

The Romans made some settlements in their country, and availed themselves of the many fine harbours to be found along its coast. At their decline, along with other portions of that once mighty empire, Albania fell a prey to Alaric and the Goths, although some of their descendants afterwards regained possession of the northern district. Sigismund, one of its kings, was celebrated for his alliance with Theodoric, the victor of Clovis and Odoacer, A. D. 526. Albania now became the prey of the Sclavonian nations, till it was settled within its present limits, under the Bulgarians, in 870. As the Greek empire declined, the Alba-

nians again rose to distinction, and at last re-established their independence, in spite of the most strenuous exertions of the Bulgarians, who were masters of all the neighbouring districts of Greece. Forming a fourth division of the army of Nicephorus Basilices, A. D. 1079, they greatly distinguished themselves. During the next century, the period of the crusades, there were several settlements on their coasts by the Sicilians, Franks, and other nations. After the conquest of Constantinople, 1204, Michael Angelus established an independent government in this district. Albania has cut some figure in the annals of the last forty years, chiefly through the enterprising spirit and politic conduct of Ali Pacha, who raised himself to a degree of power which long kept the Turks, who were nominally his masters, in a state of fear to attack him. After amassing immense treasures, and keeping up independent alliances with the European powers, he was, in 1822, finally cut off by the Turkish officers. The modern name of Albania is Arnaout.

THE HISTORY OF EGYPT.

(WITH SYRIA.)

THE early history of Egypt, like that of China, is so involved in obscurity and fable, that for many ages it must be passed over in silence; for it would be an insult to common sense, in a work professedly historical, to narrate the marvellous actions ascribed to Osiris, Isis, Typhon, Apollo, and a host of ideal personages who, as we are told, over Egypt "once held sway." After those purely fabulous ages, the first king who makes his appearance, in the times called heroic, but without any certain date, is Menes, who is by some considered the same with Misraim, the son of Ham. He drained the lower part of Egypt, converting that which was before a morass, into firm ground; turned the course of the Nile, so as to render it more beneficial to the conntry, that river having before his time washed the foot of a sandy mountain in Lybia; built the city of Memphis; instituted solemn festivals and other religious rites; instructed his subjects in many valuable arts, and accomplished a variety of wonders usually attributed to the founders of kingdoms.

It being impossible to follow the succession of princes, it must suffice to state, that after the death of Menes, Egypt was divided into several dynasties, or principalities; but its most natural and permanent division appears to have been into three portions, sometimes under one, and sometimes under different kings. The most southerly portion was called Upper Egypt, or Thebais, the capital of which was Thebes, still remarkable for the extent and magnificence of its remains. The central part, or Middle Egypt, had Memphis for its capital, situated opposite to the modern capital Cairo. Lower Egypt was the country along the branches of the Nile, as it approached the sea; many large cities were built in this tract, one of the chief of which was Heliopolis.

We learn that some ages afterwards (B. C. 2084), Egypt was invaded by the Hycsos, a pastoral tribe from the north, who penetrated to Nubia, and established themselves in that country, and in Egypt, as the sovereign

power. These are known as "the shepherd kings," and they were eventually expelled by Amosis, king of Lower Egypt, B. C. 1825.

Various princes succeeded, who all bore the title of Pharaoh. The Israelites settled in Egypt, and were reduced to a state of slavery, from which they were delivered by Divine interference; and, as we are further informed in Holy Writ, one of the Pharaohs, with all his host, was drowned in the Red Sea. The most distinguished prince of this race was Sesostris, who marched victoriously through both Africa and Asia, as far as to the countries beyond the Ganges, and enriched Egypt with the booty he acquired. After his return, he divided the country into thirty-six districts or governments.

In 725 B. C., Sabachus, king of Ethiopia, conquered Egypt and left the throne to his natural successors; but after the reign of Tharaca, his grandson, a period of anarchy followed, and Egypt was divided among twelve kings; one of these, Psammetichus, with the assistance of the Greeks, subdued his competitors, and became sole monarch, B. C. 670. After his death, the Egyptain kings continued in frequent hostilities with the neighbouring nations of Judea and Assyria, attended with various success, and were at last reduced to Persian subjection by Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, B. C. 525. The Persians remained masters of Egypt until the year 327 B. C., when it was conquered by Alexander the Great, who was received with joy by the Egyptians; the Persians having made themselves odious to the people by their exactions, and by their contempt of the Egyptian religion. Alexander, as great in the cabinet as in the field, permitted the conquered to enjoy their own laws and customs. He founded Alexandria, which soon became the deposit of the commerce of the East; and it ceased not to flourish until the discovery of a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope. After the death of the Macedonian hero, Ptolemy Soter, one of his generals, took upon himself the government of Egypt, and his descendants enjoyed it till the year 30 of the Christian era, when it was conquered by the Romans; and it became a province of that empire after the defeat of Marc Antony, and the death of Cleopatra.

The Ptolemies governed Egypt for 293 years. The first four of the family were active and wise princes, who promoted the prosperity of their country, and encouraged literature and the arts. Ptolemy Soter, the son and successor of Ptolemy Lagus, established an academy of learned men at Alexandria, and founded the celebrated library at that city, which, at the Roman conquest, contained seven hundred thousand volumes. It was partly destroyed by fire in Julius Cæsar's attack on Alexandria; but the losses were replaced in succeeding centuries, until the 7th after Christ, when it was totally destroyed by order of the Mohammedan caliph Omar. For nearly seven centuries Egypt belonged to the Roman and Greek empires, and was for a lengthened period the granary, as it were, of Rome. It then remained under the power of the Mohammedan caliphs till the beginning of the 12th century, when they were expelled by the Turcomans, who in their turn gave way to the Mamelukes, 1250.

The ancient kings of Egypt were always considered subject to the laws of the empire, and their manners were, in some particulars, regulated by set rules; among which, the quality and quantity of the provisions for their tables were allotted. If a king, during his reign, governed arbitrarily, or unjustly, his memory was condemned after his death. No people were ever more idolatrous or superstitious than the Egyptians. Men, animals, and even plants were the objects of their worship; but the deities Isis and Osiris were in the greatest repute, and adored generally throughout the country. They also especially worshiped Apis, a bull, dedicated to Osiris, at Memphis; and Mnevis, a similar bull at Heliopolis. But every city had its sacred animal; a stork, a cat, a monkey, a crocodile, or a goat; any irreverence to which was severely punished, and an in-

jury held deserving of death. The tribunal of Egypt was composed of thirty judges, chosen from among the priests of Heliopolis, of Memphis, and of Thebes; who administered justice to the people gratuitously, the prince allowing them a sufficent revenue to enable them so to do.

The Egyptians had two kinds of writing; one sacred, and one common. The former was the representation of ideas by figures of animals, or other sensible objects, called hieroglyphics; many incriptions of which still exist, as do inscriptions and writings in the common character. The priests were held in the highest reverence, and the hieroglyphics were known to them alone. Philosophy was early cultivated by the Egyptians, and the doctrine of the Metempsychosis taught in their schools, to which many of the Greek philosophers repaired. They also made great progress in astronomy and geometry, and in the arts, particularly of architecture, of which the whole country still offers extensive columns, obelisks, and those stupendous specimens of human labour, the pyramids.

We now return to the history of Egypt after it became possessed by the Mamelukes, of whom it may be as well to speak. According to M. Volney, they came originally from Mount Caucasus, and were distinguished by the flaxen colour of their hair. The expedition of the Tartars, in 1227, proved indirectly the means of introducing them into Egypt. These merciless conquerors, having slaughtered till they were weary, brought along with them an immense number of slaves of both sexes, with whom they filled all the markets in Asia. The Turks purchased about twelve thousand young men, whom they bred up in the profession of arms, which they soon excelled in; but, becoming mutinous, they deposed and murdered the sultan Malek, in 1260. The Mamelukes having thus got possession of the government, and neither understanding nor valuing anything but the art of war, every species of learning decayed in Egypt, and a degree of barbarism was introduced. Neither was their empire of long duration, notwithstanding their martial abilities; for as they depended upon the Christian slaves, chiefly brought from Circassia, whom they bought for the purpose of training to war, and thus filling up their ranks, these new Mamelukes, or Borgites as they were at first called, in time rose upon their masters, and transferred the government to themselves, about A. D. 1382. They became famous for ferocious valour; were almost perpetually engaged in wars either foreign or domestic; and their dominion lasted till 1517, when they were invaded by Selim I., the Turkish sultan. The Mamelukes defended themselves with incredible bravery, but, overpowered by numbers, they were defeated in almost every engagement. Cairo, their capital, was taken, and a terrible slaughter made of its defenders. The sultan, Tuman Bey, was forced to fly; and, having collected all his forces, he ventured a decisive battle. The most romantic efforts of valour, however, were insufficient to cope with the innumerable multitude which composed the Turkish army. Most of his men were cut in pieces, and the unhappy prince was himself taken and put to death. With him ended the glory of the Mamelukes.

The sultan Selim commenced his government of Egypt by an unexampled act of wholesale butchery. Having ordered a theatre to be erected on the banks of the Nile, he caused all the prisoners (upwards of thirty thousand), to be beheaded in his presence, and their bodies thrown into the river. He did not, however, attempt the total extirpation of the Mamelukes, but proposed a new form of government, by which the power, being distributed among the different members of the state, should preserve an equilibrium; so that the dependence of the whole should be upon himself. With this view, he chose from among those Mamelukes who had escaped the general massacre, a divan, or council of regency, consisting of the pacha and chiefs of the seven military corps. The former was to notify to this council the orders of the porte, to send the tribute to Con-

stantinople, and provide for the safety of government both external and internal; while, on the other hand, the members of the council had a right to reject the orders of the pacha, or even of deposing him, provided they could assign sufficient reasons. All the civil and political ordinances must also be ratified by them. Besides this, he formed the whole body into a kind of republic; for which purpose he issued an edict, stating, "Though, by the help of the Almighty, we have conquered the whole kingdom of Egypt with our invincible armies, nevertheless our benevolence is willing to grant to the twenty-four sangiacs of Egypt a republican government," &c. The conditions and regulations then follow, the most important of which are those which make it incumbent on the republic to provide twelve thousand troops at its own expense in time of peace, and as many as may be necessary for its protection in time of war; and also to send to the Sublime Porte a certain sum in money annually as tribute, with six hundred thousand measures of corn, and four hundred thousand of barley. Upon these conditions the Mamelukes were to have a free government over all the inhabitants of Egypt, independent of the Turkish lieutenant. Thus the power of the Mamelukes still continued in a considerable degree, and gradually increased so much as to threaten a loss of dominion to the Turks; but, singular as it may seem, notwithstanding a residence of nearly six centuries, they never became naturalized in the country. They formed no alliance with the females of Egypt, but had their wives brought from Georgia, Mingrelia, and the adjacent countries; so that, according to Volney, their offspring invariably became extinct in the second generation; they were therefore perpetuated by the same means by which they were first established; that is, their ranks were recruited by slaves brought from their original country. Indeed, as many writers have remarked, the Circassian territories have at all times been a nursery of slaves. Towards the end of last century, when they constituted the whole military force, and had acquired the entire government of Egypt, the Mamelukes, together with the Serradijes, a kind of mounted domestics, did not exceed ten thousand men. Some hundreds of them were dispersed throughout the country and in the villages, to maintain the authority of their corps and collect tribute; but the main body constantly remained at Cairo. "Strangers to each other, bound by no ties as parents or children, placed among a people with whom they had nothing in common, despised as renegades by the Turks, ignorant and superstitious from education, ferocious, perfidious, seditious, and corrupted by every species of debauchery, the disorders and cruelties which accompanied their licentious rule may be more easily imagined than described. Sovereignty to them was to have the means of possessing more women, toys, horses, and slaves, than others; of managing the court of Constantinople, so as to elude the tribute or the menaces of the sultan; and of multiplying partisans, countermining plots, and destroying secret enemies by the dagger or poison. But with all this, they are brave in the extreme. Their beys, and even the common soldiers, distinguished themselves by the magnificence and costliness of their accoutrements, though these were in general clumsy and heavy. Being trained from infancy to the use of arms and horsemanship, they were admirable horsemen; and used the scimitar, carbine, pistol, and lance, with almost unequalled skill and vigour."

About the year 1746, Ibrahim, an officer of the Janissaries, rendered himself in reality master of Egypt, having managed matters so well, that of the twenty-four beys, or sangiacs, eight were of his household; so that by this means, as well as by attaching the officers and soldiers of his corps to his interest, the pacha became altogether unable to oppose him, and the orders of the sultan were less respected than those of Ibrahim. At his death, in 1757, his family continued to rule in a despotic manner; but waging war among each other, Ali Bey, who had been a principal actor in

the disturbances, in 1766 overcame the rest, and for sometime rendered himself absolute master of Egypt. This remarkable man was a Syrian by birth, and had been purchased when a youth in the slave market at Cairo; but being possessed of great talents, and of a most ambitious turn of mind, he, after a variety of extraordinary adventures, was appointed one of the twenty-four beys of Egypt. The Porte, being at that time on the eve of a dangerous war with Russia, had not leisure to attend to the proceedings of Ali Bey; so that he had an opportunity of vigorously prosecuting his designs. His first expedition was against an Arabian prince named Hamman; against whom he sent his favourite Mohammed Bey, under pretence that the former had concealed a treasure entrusted with him by Ibrahim, and that he afforded protection to rebels. Having destroyed this unfortunate prince, he next began to put in execution a plan proposed to him by a young Venetian merchant, of rendering Gedda, the port of Mecca, an emporium for all the commerce of India; and he even imagined he should be able to make the Europeans abandon the passage to the Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. With this view, he fitted out some vessels at Suez; and, manning them with Mamelukes, commanded the bey Hassan to sail with them to Gedda, and seize upon it, while a body of cavalry under Mohammed Bey advanced against the town. Both these commissions were executed according to his wish, and Ali became quite intoxicated with his success. Nothing but ideas of conquest now occupied his mind, without considering the immense disproportion between his own force and that of the grand seignior. Circumstances were then indeed very favourable to his schemes. The sheik Daher was in rebellion against the Porte in Syria, and the pacha of Damascus had so exasperated the people by his extortions, that they were ready for a revolt.

Having made the necessary preparations, Ali Bey dispatched about five hundred Mamelukes to take possession of Gaza, and thus secure an entrance into Palestine. Osman, the pacha of Damascus, however, no sooner heard of the invasion than he prepared for war, while the troops of Ali Bey held themselves in readiness to fly on the first attack. Sheik Daher hastened to their assistance, while Osman fled without even offering to make the least resistance; thus leaving the enemy masters of all Palestine. The combined army of Ali Bey and Sheik Daher afterward marched to Damascus; where the pachas waited for them, and on the 6th of June, 1771, a decisive action took place: the Mamelukes and Safadians (the name of Daher's subjects) rushed on the Turks with such fury, that, terrified at their courage, the latter immediately fled; and the allies became masters of the country, taking possession of the city without opposition. The castle alone resisted. Its ruinous fortification had not a single cannon; but it was surrounded by a muddy ditch, and behind the ruins were posted a few musqueteers; and these alone were sufficient to check this army of cavalry. As the besieged, however, were already conquered by their fears, they capitulated on the third day, and the place was to be surrounded next morning, when, at daybreak, a most extraordinary revolution took place. This was no less than the defection of Mohammed Bey himself, whom Osman had gained over in a conference during the night. At the moment, therefore, that the signal of surrender was expected, this treacherous general sounded a retreat, and turned toward Egypt with all his cavalry, flying with as great precipitation as if he had been pursued by a superior army. Mohammed continued his march with such celerity, that the report of his arrival in Egypt reached Cairo only six hours before him. Thus Ali Bey found himself at once deprived of all his expectations of conquest; and, what was indeed galling, he found a traitor whom he durst not punish, at the head of his forces. A sudden reverse of fortune now took place. Several vessels laden with corn for Sheik Daher

were taken by a Russian privateer; and Mohammed Bey, whom he designed to have put to death, not only made his escape, but was so well attended that he could not be attacked. His followers continuing daily to increase in number, Mohammed soon became sufficiently strong to march toward Cairo; and, in April, 1772, having defeated the troops of Ali in a rencontre, entered the city sword in hand, while the latter had scarcely time to make his escape with eight hundred Mamelukes. With difficulty he was enabled to get to Syria by the assistance of Sheik Daher, whom he immediately joined with the troops he had with him. The Turks under Osman were at that time besieging Sidon, but raised the siege on the approach of the allied army, consisting of about seven thousand cavalry. Though the Turkish army was at least three times their number, the allies did not hesitate to attack them, and gained a complete victory. Their affairs now began to wear a more favourable aspect, but the military operations were retarded by the siege of Yafa (the ancient Joppa), which had revolted, and held out for eight months. In the beginning of 1773 it capitulated, and Ali Bey began to think of returning to Cairo. For this purpose Sheik Daher had promised him succours, and the Russians, with whom he had now contracted an alliance, made him a similar promise. Ali, however, ruined everything by his own impatience. He set out with his Mamelukes and fifteen hundred Safadians given him by Daher: but he had no sooner entered the desert which separates Gaza from Egypt, than he was attacked by a body of one thousand chosen Mamelukes, who were lying in wait for his arrival. They were commanded by a young bey, named Mourad, who, being enamoured of the wife of Ali Bey, had obtained a promise of her from Mohammed, in case he could bring him her husband's head. As soon as Mourad perceived the dust by which the approach of Ali's army was announced, he rushed forward to the attack and took prisoner Ali Bey himself, after wounding him in the forehead with a sabre. Being conducted to Mohammed Bey, the latter pretended to treat him with extraordinary respect, and ordered a magnificent tent to be erected for him; but in three days he was found dead of his wounds, as was given out; though some, with equal probability, affirmed that he was poisoned.

Upon the death of Ali Bey, Mohammed took upon himself the supreme dignity. At first he pretended to be only the defender of the rights of the sultan, remitted the usual tribute to Constantinople, and took the customary oath of unlimited obedience; after which he solicited to make war upon Sheik Daher, against whom he had a personal pique. In February, 1776, he appeared in Syria with an army equal to that which he had formerly commanded under Ali Bey. Daher's forces despairing of being able to cope with such a formidable armament, abandoned Gaza, of which Mohammed immediately took possession, and then marched toward Yafa, which defended itself so long, that Mohammed was distracted with rage, anxiety, and despair. The besieged, however, whose numbers were diminished by the repeated attacks, became weary of the contest; and it was proposed to abandon the place, on the Egyptians giving hostages. Conditions were agreed upon, and the treaty might be considered as concluded, when, in the midst of the security occasioned by this belief, some Mamelukes entered the town; numbers of others following their example, attempted to plunder. The inhabitants defended themselves, and the attack recommenced; the whole army then rushed into the town, which suffered all the horrors of war; women and children, young and old men, were all cut to pieces, and Mohammed, equally mean and barbarous, caused a pyramid, formed of the heads of the unfortunate sufferers, to be raised as a monument to his victory. By this disaster the greatest terror and consternation were diffused everywhere. Sheik Daher himself fled, and Mohammed soon became master of Acre also. Here he behaved with

his usual cruelty, and abandoned the city to be plundered by his soldiers. But his career was soon stopped, his death just at the time occurring through a malignant fever, after two days' illness.

Soon after Mohammed's death a contest arose among several of the beys, as to who should succeed him. But the chief struggle lay between Mourad and Ibrahim, who, having ultimately overcome the rest, agreed in 1785, to share the government between them, and continued to rule as joint pachas for many years. From that time we have no account of any remarkable transaction in Egypt, till the French invaded that country in 1798; which we shall as concisely as possible relate, and then take a brief survey of some striking events that have occurred more recently. When Selim III. ascended the Ottoman throne, the French revolution was just breaking out; but until Bonaparte's memorable invasion of Egypt and Syria, its effects were not much felt in that quarter of the globe. The two Mameluke beys, Mourad and Ibrahim, were at that time at the head of the government. The French landed near Alexandria on the 1st of July, 1798; and that city was taken by assault on the 5th, and plundered by the soldiery. They then marched to Cairo, but were met by an army of Mamelukes in the plains near the Pyramids, where the French gained a signal victory, which was followed by their occupation of the capital, and the submission, in general, of the inhabitants. The destruction of the French fleet, by the English under Nelson, in the bay of Aboukir, was the next event of importance; yet, notwithstanding this great calamity, Bonaparte was not deterred from pursuing his original design, but set out at the head of ten thousand men to cross the desert which separates Egypt from Palestine. On his arrival in Syria he conquered several towns, one of which was Jaffa. The defence of Acre, however, by Sir Sidney Smith, put a stop to the future proceeding of Napoleon in that quarter.

The most remarkable person connected with Egypt after the period of which we have been speaking, was Mehemet Ali, the Turkish pacha of that country. This chief, who has since become so prominent in Egyptian and Syrian history, was ambitious of making himself independent of the Ottoman Porte; but as this could not be effected while the Mameluke beys retained their power and influence, he determined on their extirpation by a cold-blooded act of treachery. He accordingly invited them to a grand festival, to be given in honour of his son Ibrahim, who had just been appointed commander-in-chief of an expedition against the Wahabites of Arabia. Wholly unsuspicious of the treacherous design of Mehemet Ali, the beys arrived at the castle on the appointed day, (March 1st, 1811), each attended by his suite; but they had no sooner entered than they were seized and beheaded. The execution of all the chief Mamelukes throughout the country immediately followed; and Mehemet now, though nominally a vassal of the Turkish empire, exercised all the functions and privileges of an absolute sovereign prince. In the histories of 'Turkey' and 'Greece,' will be seen how large a share Mehemet Ali and Ibrahim had in fomenting and carrying on the war between those countries. It will also be seen in its proper place in the history of 'England,' that Mehemet Ali had provoked the insurrection in Syria, and but for the interference of England and her continental allies, would have wrested Egypt and Syria from the Turks. But the allied fleet, under the command of Sir R. Stopford and Commodore Napier, bombarded and captured the whole line of fortified places along the coast of Syria, ending their operations with the destruction of St. Jean d' Acre. This place is renowned for scenes of desperate valour. A heavy cannonade for three hours was kept up, by which time the guns of the forts were silenced; when, owing to one of the bomb-shots falling on the enemy's powder magazine, an awful explosion took place, and twelve hundred human beings were blown

into the air. This decided the fate of the war; and Mehemet Ali, after a long negotiation, in which the allied powers of Europe took part, was reinstated in his viceroyship of Egypt, the government of that country to descend in a direct hereditary line, A. D. 1841. That Mehemet Ali is a man of superior talents, and that under his administration of affairs, Egypt has made advances in arts and arms, and in the improvement of those natural advantages which she possesses for securing her internal prosperity, no one can entertain a doubt; but, at the same time we cannot forget, that many of his actions prove him to be despotic, cruel, and revengeful.

ALEXANDRIA.

ALEXANDRIA, now called Scanderia, the ancient capital of Lower Egypt, occupies a prominent position in the annals of history, even from its first foundation. Perhaps there is no place whose records present to a maritime people more interesting details. Founded by the Great Alexander, whose mind was comprehensive as his valour was unequalled, the very cause of its existence was commercial, and its history for eighteen hundred years shows how well the Macedonians appreciated the advantages of maritime resources. The strength of Tyre, which cost him so long and so dear a contest, probably suggested to him the value of commerce. Accordingly, after the city "whose merchants were princes," had fallen before his banners, and Egypt received his yoke, he formed the design of building a city, in which commerce might find a shelter, and from which his vast empire might derive riches and strength. No sooner was the design conceived than executed; and Alexander, whose new commercial depôt was situated alike convenient for the trade of the east and the west, died A. D. 385. Amidst the convulsions which shook his empire to pieces after his death, Alexandria continued to rise in greatness and magnificence under the fostering protection of the enlightened Ptolemies, the friends of commerce and science—whose capital it became, A. D. 304. But such is the natural proneness of human things to decay, that wealth begets luxury, and greatness is its own destroyer. For three hundred years during which Alexandria was subject to the Ptolemies, the canker of corruption bloated its magnificence, and fed upon its luxury.

The name of Ptolemy Physcon is synonymous with vice and cruelty. His savage brutality made Alexandria almost a desert about one hundred and thirty years before Christ. The desertion of sages, grammarians, philosophers, and other masters of the liberal sciences, whose presence had shed a lustre over the capital of Egypt, was followed by the influx of people of various nations, invited by a general proclamation of the tyrant. An inhuman massacre of all the young men of the city shortly afterward took place, and Alexandria was for some time the scene of commotion and anarchy. In 48 B. C., the conqueror of the West visited the city of the victor of the East, in pursuit of his defeated rival, where he arbitrated between Ptolemy XII. and Cleopatra. His military conduct was no less conspicuous here than it had been previously in Gaul, Britain, and the plains of Pharsalia. With a small band of Romans, assisted by some forces of the Jews, he defeated the whole army of Ptolemy. Whilst history records with exultation the exploit of Cæsar, who swam across the Nile bearing his Commentaries aloft safe from the waters, she droops over the conflagration which accidentally consumed the library of the Bruchion, consisting of four hundred thousand volumes. For it must be remembered that the city of Alexandria was originally designed, and actually proved, to be the mart of philosophy and science.

The emperor Caligula had designed Alexandria as the seat of his empire, in the event of his massacring the chief senators and knights of Rome. In the year A. D. 40, the Jews, who, to the amount of a million, had for many years enjoyed a variety of privileges, were, by an edict of Flaccus, now declared strangers in Alexandria—and underwent, as one of the signs of the time of their approaching destruction and the complete dispersion of their nation, grievous privations, losses, and cruelty. It was within a few years after this, that the gospel of Jesus Christ was promulgated in Alexandria, and received by many. The names of Pantænus, St. Clement, and Origen, are found as presidents of a Christian school of considerable eminence founded in this city. The admixture, however, of the philosophy which distinguished Alexandria, with the tenets of Christianity, and the dogmas of Judaism, tended materially to corrupt both truth and wisdom; and the eclectic philosophy proved the foundation of the Jewish cabbala, and many corruptions of the Christian faith. Under Claudius, Alexandria again reckoned the Jews as citizens. It was the first place which hailed Vespasian emperor, A. D. 69; and here he abode whilst his generals and armies were deciding his cause against Vitellius. The account Adrian, who visited the city A. D. 130, gives of it, is characteristic of the industry and enterprise of commerce, as well as of its worst and most pernicious effects upon the inhabitants who thrive upon its riches. Under the emperor Severus, Alexandria obtained several immunities and privileges, A. D. 202; a grateful sense of which was manifested by a monument erected to him. Different, however, was their fortune under the despicable Caracalla, who rewarded their entertainment of him by a general massacre of the inhabitants, A. D. 215; by abolishing the societies of learned men, who were maintained in the museum; by the plunder of temples and private houses; and by separating different parts of the city from one another by walls and towers. During the reign of Gallienus, Alexandria suffered most severely both by water and pestilence. But history, here, records with admiration the conduct of two Christian bishops, Eusebius and Anatolius, who, like the good Samaritan, bound up the wounds of the wretched, and, like their heavenly Master, were unwearied in alleviating the distresses of their suffering fellow-creatures. Their conduct sheds a lustre over the annals of this city, far transcending the most brilliant exploits which emblazon its heraldry. Alexandria was now almost depopulated. It, however, again recovered somewhat of its former greatness, again to feel the unsparing havoc of war and dissension, in the reign of Dioclesian, who having captured it from Achilleus, the usurper of Egypt, gave it up to indiscriminate pillage and plunder, A. D. 296. He made some retribution for this severity by establishing certain salutary regulations, amongst which may be reckoned, his establishment for the perpetual distribution of corn, for the benefit of this city, A. D. 302. Under Constantine, Alexandria again flourished by its trade and commerce. A dreadful and almost universal earthquake, July 21, 365, shook this city to its very foundation, and swallowed up fifty thousand of its inhabitants. Although the second capital of the Roman empire, Alexandria was captured by the Moslems, under Amrou, the general of the caliph Omar, December 22, A. D. 640. Bloody and obstinate was the siege: amply supplied with provisions, and devoted to the defence of their dearest rights and honours, its inhabitants bravely withstood the astonishing efforts and unwearied bravery of their enemies; and had Heraclius as promply seconded their resolution, the crescent of Mahomet had not then reigned in bloody supremacy over the Christian cross. It was invaluable to Heraclius, and its loss was a source of great inconvenience to Byzantium, to which it had been the storehouse. Since, in the short space of five years, the harbours and fortifications of Alexandria were occupied by a fleet and army of Romans, twice did the valour of its conqueror, Amrou, expel

them; but his policy had been to dismantle several walls and towers, in pursuance of a vow he had made of rendering Alexandria as accessible as the home of a prostitute. In the year 642, the library of Alexandria was destroyed by order of the caliph Omar; and so extensive was it, that its volumes of paper or parchment sufficed to light the fires of the four thousand baths which were in the city, for more than six months!

So waned the splendour and glory of this mighty city. The dominion of the Saracens withered its energies, and Alexandria gradually sunk from its high estate, so that in the year 875, its extent was contracted to half its former dimensions. Mournful, but still majestic in its decline, it still retained the Pharos, and part of its public places and monuments. In 920 its great church, called Cosarea, which had formerly been a pagan temple, erected by Cleopatra, in honour of Saturn, was destroyed by fire; and two years after, this second, or Arabic, Alexandria, was taken by the Magrebians, who, after various vicissitudes, at length finally lost it to the Moslems, A. D. 928, when more than two hundred thousand of the wretched inhabitants perished. The discovery of the Cape of Good Hope in 1499, completed the ruin which had, for some centuries, been advancing under the Turkish dominion; and Alexandria ceases from that time to possess any particular interest for the historian, until the close of the last century. The first consul of France, whose name will be reckoned up with the Macedonian Alexander and the Roman Cæsar, like these two great prototypes of his ambition, displayed in Alexandria his skill and prowess. It fell to his army July 4, 1798, after a defeat of the Arabs and Mamelukes. The thunders of the British navy, braving defeat and discomfiture through the ships of France, at Aboukir, were heard at Alexandria, and the British ensign waved triumphant over its walls in the year 1801, as again in 1806. Among the names of various heroes connected with this once mighty city, that of Abercrombie, who died there in the arms of victory, shall live enrolled in the annals of history.

ANTIOCH.

The history of this interesting place is pregnant with great and important events connected as well with profane as sacred history. It was founded by Antigonus, and called Antigonia, a name soon after changed for Antiocha, in honour of Antiochus, father of Seleucus. The seat of empire for the kings of Syria, and of government for the Roman officers, Antioch was a place of considerable importance. It contained four distinct cities, and was therefore called Tetrapolis. Another city, built in its suburbs, called Daphne, superceded it in magnificence and luxury so much, that, not only did "to live after the manner of Daphne" become proverbial, but Antioch was termed Antioch near Daphne.

Its history is confined pretty much to the various calamities of war and pestilence which, at different times, have visited and scourged this city. By the assistance of Jonathan, the leader of the Maccabees, king Demetrius punished the contumacy of his dissatisfied subjects by slaying ten thousand of them, B. C. 145. An extraordinary earthquake laid it in ruins in the reign of Trajan, A. D. 115; the emperor himself being with difficulty saved from destruction. Antioch rose from its ashes under the auspices of Trajan, and was again nearly consumed by fire in 155. It was restored by Antoninus Pius, but was dispossessed, A. D. 177, by a severe edict of his, of all its ancient rights and priviliges, as a punishment for abetting the faction of Ovidius Cassius, governor of Syria, a measure, however, which was soon annulled. In 194 Severus, to punish the part which its natives took in the faction between him and Niger, passed a similar edict, and

subjected Antioch, reduced to the level of a village, to Laodicea, but the next year he revoked his sentence. In the meanwhile Antioch had been distinguished for some events connected with the spread of Christianity, which, it is said, was established here by St. Peter, in the year 38. It was here the followers of the Redeemer were first called Christians, and an assembly of the apostles was held in 56. There have also been several councils convened in Antioch at different periods.

From its situation, it was necessarily exposed to severe attacks during the wars between the Persians and the Romans, when the power of the latter began to decline. It was three times taken by the Persian monarch, Sapor, who, after its last capture, plundered it and laid all its public buildings prostrate. In 331 it was visited by a severe famine. Sixteen years afterward its importance was increased by Constantine II., who, at an immense expense, formed the harbour of Seleucia for its convenience. During the residence of the emperor Julian here, on his way to the Persian empire, there occurred throughout the Roman provinces a severe famine, which visited Antioch more severely than other places, from the establishment of a corn-law by the emperor. In 381, two great scourges appeared, plague and famine; the former soon subsided, but on the continuance of the latter, Libanius, the bishop, entreated assistance from Icairus, prefect of the East, who answered the entreaty with brutality and insult. A commotion ensued, which, however, terminated without bloodshed. Six years afterward, a tremendous tumult took place, in consequence of a tax imposed upon the people by the emperor Theodosius, in commemoration of the tenth year of his own reign, and the fifth of that of his son Arcadius. The governor of the city with difficulty escaped the frenzy of the populace; and great indignities were offered to the emperor's statues by the people, who were made to atone for this offence by the most cruel punishments. St. Chrysostom distinguished himself on this occasion by preaching homilies to the people, which tended very much to reform their dissolute and corrupt practices. Severe measures were on the point of being executed against Antioch by command of Theodosius, when they were averted by the united entreaties of St. Chrysotom, some hermits, and Flavianus, bishop of Antioch. But there was no defence to this ill-fated place in the year 598 against the awful visitation of an earthquake, which, on September 19, laid desolate the most beautiful quarter of the city. A similar visitation occurred in 525, in the reign of Justin. Neither was the fury of man long withheld from working destruction to Antioch. In 540 it was captured by Chosroes, king of Persia. The churches were pillaged, and, like another Nebuchadnezzar, he appropriated their gold and silver to his own use. Rapine, pillage, and Até in her fullest insubordination, were let loose. Antioch had not a dwelling left; her people were scattered, slain, or carried into captivity. Once more, phœnix-like, it rose from its ruins, to experience another earthquake in 580, which destroyed thirty thousand persons.

A new enemy now appears on the page of its history. The Saracens took Antioch in the year 634, and retained possession of it till 858, when again it was annexed to the Roman empire. The Turks next became masters of it; and they in turn lost it to the Crusaders, who made a principality of Antioch, in 1098, under Bohemond, prince of Torento. He was taken prisoner by the Turks in 1101, but liberated in 1103. Meanwhile Antioch had been governed by Tancred, who died the year after his appointment. The whole of the principality of Antioch, excepting the city, was overrun by the sultan Noureddin in 1148, who in the year 1160 took Bohemond III. prisoner. On his liberation in 1175, he was created knight by Louis VI. of France, and died in 1201. The principality of Antioch was dissolved in 1268 by the capture of the city by Bibars, sultan of Babylon. It then became a portion of the Turkish empire, which it has since con-

tinued, having experienced during that period two earthquakes—one in 1759, and the other in 1822.

Antioch has listed to the march of empires; the splendors of the Macedonian, the majesty of the Roman, the voluptuousness of the Persian, the vigour of the Saracenic, and the tyranny of the Osmanic, have in turns revelled in her palaces, and adorned or degraded her beauty; while the voice of Christianity has whispered in her temple, and the thunders of the Incomprehensible Deity have spoken in awful prodigies, and awed her inhabitants by pestilence, famine and earthquakes.

THE BARBARY STATES.

Barbary is a vast territory of Africa, containing the states or kingdoms of Algiers, Morocco, Fez, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca. It stretches entirely across the northern shores of Africa, from the Atlantic Ocean on the western boundary of Egypt, taking almost the whole range of the southern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. In width it is various, and bounded by the "great desert." The Romans obtained possession of Barbary in the time of Julius Cæsar, and remained masters of it till A. D. 428. At that time Bonifacius, the Roman governor, revolted, and called in to his assistance Genseric, king of the Vandals, who had been sometime settled in Spain. They agreed to divide the country between them: Genseric was to have two-thirds, and Bonifacius one-third. Genseric set sail in May the same year, with an army of eighty thousand men, together with their wives, children, and effects. Genseric had no sooner effected his landing, and secured a part of the country, than he turned his arms against Bonifacius, defeated him, and obliged him to shelter himself in Hippo, which place he besieged in May, 430; but was under the necessity of retiring from famine. The Romans sent an army into Africa, under the conduct of the celebrated Aspar, from Constantinople; a dreadful battle ensued, and Genseric became the victor. The Vandals were by this victory rendered masters of Africa. Cirtha and Carthage were the only strong places possessed by the Romans.

In 435, peace was concluded between the Romans and the Vandals. The former gave up part of Numidia, the province of Procon Salariz and Byzancene, for which a yearly sum was to be paid to the emperor of the East. However, in 439, the Romans being engaged in a war with the Goths of Gaul, Genseric took this advantage to seize Carthage, by which he considerably enlarged his African dominions. On the taking of Carthage, Genseric made it the seat of his empire; and, in 440, made a descent on the island of Sicily, plundered it and returned to Africa. Being now become formidable to both empires, Theodosius, emperor of the East, resolved to assist Valentinian against so powerful an enemy. Accordingly, he fitted out a fleet of eleven hundred ships, filled with the flower of his army, under Arcovindus. Genseric now pretending a desire to be at peace with both empires, amused the Roman general with pacific proposals, till the season for action was over. Theodosius being obliged to recall his forces to oppose the Huns, Valentinian found it necessary to conclude a peace with the Vandals, yielding them quiet possession of the countries they had seized. Genseric was now become so powerful, or

rather so low was the power of the Roman empire reduced, that, in 455, he took the city of Rome, and plundered it; and after his return to Africa, made himself master of all the remaining countries held by the Romans in that part of the world.

The kingdom of the Vandals in Africa was now fully established; and Genseric made himself master of Sicily, as well as all the other islands between Italy and Africa, without opposition from the western emperors, who were now too feeble to resist him, A. D. 476. Genseric made his dominions a scene of blood, and died in 477, after a reign of forty-seven years. He was succeeded by his son Hunneric, who proved a greater tyrant than his father, persecuting the Christians with the utmost fury; and during his short reign of seven years and a half, he destroyed more of them than Genseric had done during the whole of his life. The successors of Hunneric, Gutamund, Thrasamund, and Hilderic, of whom we know very little, except that the latter was deposed, in the seventh year of his reign, by Gelimer, a prince of the blood-royal, who proved a greater tyrant than any that had gone before him, and was held in abhorrence, when the emperor Justinian proposed an invasion of Africa. Accordingly, he sent a powerful fleet and army against Gelimir, under the command of the celebrated Belisarius. Gelimir committed the management of his army to his brothers, Gundimer and Gelamund: they attacked the Romans; the engagement was long and bloody, but at length the Vandals were defeated, and the two princes slain. Gelimer headed a fresh army, which was also defeated, and the loss of Carthage followed. Another defeat followed close upon the former. Gelimer fled into Numidia, and an end was put to the Vandal power in Barbary. Gelimer was afterward brought in gold chains before Justinian, whom he besought, in the most submissive manner, to spare his life. This was readily granted by the emperor; and a handsome yearly pension was also allowed him.

Barbary remained under the Roman power until the caliphate of Omar, when it was reduced by the Saracens. It continued subject to the caliph till the reign of Haroun al Raschid, when Ebn Aglab, the governor, assumed independence. The house of Aglab was driven out by Al Mohdi, the first Fatimite caliph. Al Mohdi reigned twenty-four years, and was succeeded by his son, Abul Kasem, who took the name of Al Kayem Mohdi. During this reign we read of nothing remarkable, except the rebellion of Yesod. He was succeeded by his son Ishmael, who took upon himself the title of Al Mansur. Al Mansur was succeeded by his son, Abu Zammin Moad, who assumed the surname of Al Moez Ledenillah. This caliph conquered Egypt, and removed the caliphate to that country. The other material events that have taken place in the Barbary States will be found in the historical notice of Algiers.

ALGIERS.

ALGIERS, a country of northern Africa, and which was regarded as the most powerful of the Barbary states, has long been the subject of European indignation for its piratical practices, and the ignominious slavery to which all Christians who fell into its power were irrevocably doomed. But the hour of retribution has at length come; and the events of late

years have greatly contributed to call the attention of the civilized world to its past and present history. There is a variety of opinions respecting the original inhabitants: some contending that they were the Sabeans who plundered the patriarch Job; others, Cananites who were driven out of their country by Joshua. Be this as it may, the Algerine kingdom formerly made a considerable part of the Mauritania Tingitania, which Julius Cæsar reduced to a Roman province. The Algerines shared in the fortunes of Rome; for, at the decline of its empire, they fell to the Vandals, who in turn were expelled by the Saracens about the middle of the seventh century. From that period they were subject to the Arabs, till the year 1051, when Abubeker ben Omar, by the agency of his marabouts or saints, assembled a large force of malcontents in Numidia and Lybia. His followers were called Morabites, and the kingdom which he founded is distinguished by that appellation. Religious frenzy seems to have imparted resolution and strength, the sinews of victory, to these combatants; whilst a variety of favourable circumstances, arising from the absence of the most powerful of the constituted authorities, enabled Abubeker to vanquish the several sheiks who opposed him, and at length reduce the whole of Tingitania under his sway.

His successor Yusef, or Joseph, founded Morocco as the capital of the Morabitish kingdom. An event which at first seemed to threaten his project with annihilation, turned out to the increase of his power, and the consolidation of his empire. In order to strengthen his new dynasty, he sent ambassadors to a powerful sect of the Mohammedans, called Zeneti, whom he wished to bring back to what he called the true faith, who not only murdered his emissaries, but with a large army invaded his kingdom. Fearful and terrible was the retribution he exacted from them. He ravaged their lands with fire and sword; and, assisted by the inhabitants of Fez, who refused the Zeneti the succour they had expected from them when they retreated upon their city, he almost annihilated the whole tribe, to the amount of nearly a million of souls, including women and children. Their desolated country was soon repeopled by colonies from Fez; and Joseph, forgetful of the efficient support he had received from the Fezzans, attacked and subdued both them and the remaining Arab sheiks, who, relying upon their supposed impregnable fortresses, had not yet submitted to his authority. The dynasty of the Morabites, founded by the influence of the marabouts, fell before the power of Mohavedin, a marabout, in the middle of the twelfth century, whose priestly tribe was expelled by Abdular, governor of Fez. Thus did the conquered become conquerors, only to fall before the renovated power of the descendants of those very princes whom Abubeker in the eleventh century had stripped of their power. Their descendants divided their new conquests into several kingdoms or provinces, dividing the present kingdom of Algiers into Tremecen, Tenez, Algiers Proper, and Bujeyah. The alliance of these four kingdoms was so well cemented, that mutual amity reigned amongst them for nearly three centures. It was interrupted by the aggression of the king of Tremecen, who was in consequence attacked, and subjected by the potentate of Tenez, Abul Farez. He left his power divided amongst his sons, which occasioned discords, and afforded the Spaniards an opportunity of attacking them. Ferdinand of Spain having driven the Saracens from Europe, followed them into Africa, and, in 1504 and 1509, took possession of Oran, Bujeyah, Algiers, and other places.

The successes of the count of Navarre struck such terror into the Algerines, that they sought the protection of Selim Eutemi, an Arabian prince. This alliance however, though actively exerted, did not save them from becoming tributary to their European invaders, who raised a strong fort on a small island opposite the city, in order to deter the maraudings of the corsairs. The death of Ferdinand, in 1516, seemed the signal of their

liberty; for they solicited, with larger offers, the succour of Ameh Barbarossa, whose valour and success had rendered him the most redoubtable captain of that period. Barbarossa readily answered their call, and marched with a powerful army to Algiers, having first reduced and then treacherously murdered Hassan, another celebrated corsair, whose followers, consisting of Turks, he compelled to follow in his ranks. The whole populace of Algiers, with the prince Selim Eutemi at their head, received this accomplished butcher with every demonstration of gratitude and honour; which he repaid by causing the prince to be murdered, and himself to be saluted by his licentious followers with "Long live king Ameh Barbarossa, the invincible king of Algiers, the chosen of God to deliver the people from the oppression of the Christians." This part of the acclamation might have been acceptable enough to the Algerines in respect of the object for which they had sought his friendship; but the concluding words, "destruction to all who shall oppose, or refuse to own him as their lawful sovereign," struck such terror into them, that they acknowledged his pretensions and received him as their king. His treachery to Selim was followed by brutal insults to Zaphira, his widow, who having vainly attempted to stab the tyrant, poisoned herself.

The reign of Barbarossa, began in treachery and usurpation, was continued by havoc and bloodshed. The signal barbarity he exercised over some conspirators whom he had detected, effectually repressed all similar plots against him in those who disliked his authority, whilst his unbounded liberality to those who followed him obtained the favour of others who sought their own private advantage in preference to their country's liberty. An attempt, fomented by Selim, son of the prince whom Barbarossa had murdered, proved abortive, although backed by ten thousand Spaniards under the command of Don Diego de Vera. The king of Tunis also, at the head of ten thousand Moors, was defeated by the Algerine autocrat, with only one thousand Turkish musqueteers and five hundred Granada Moors, his capital taken and pillaged, himself deposed, and Barbarossa made sovereign in his stead. This victory, which he owed to the use of fire-arms, which had now began to lend their terrible assistance to the deadliness of war, was followed by an embassy from Tremecen, in which place also he was chosen king. His tyranny in Tremecen led to his destruction, for the expelled royal family having obtained the assistance of the Spaniards, and being joined by the refugee Algerines, under the guidance of prince Selim, pressed the monarch so closely, that in his attempt to escape he was overtaken, and after a resistance distinguished by the most uncompromising valour of his followers, was slain by his pursuers, in the forty-fourth year of his age, A. D. 1520. The death of Barbarossa did not deliver the Algerines from the Turkish authority; for Hayradin, his brother, was appointed king. To strengthen his power he sought the protection of the Grand Seignior, from whom he received a confirmation of his office, and such reinforcements that he both compelled the acquiescence of the Moors and Arabs to his sway, and was enabled also greatly to annoy the Europeans by sea. He captured the Spanish fort of Calan, and by employing thirty thousand Christian slaves on the work without intermission for three years, he built a strong mole, as a protection for his shipping. And not only did he provide this defence for himself, but, by repairing and strengthening the captured Spanish fort, he effectually kept out all foreign vessels. He strengthened, by the assistance of the Ottoman sultan, all the weak places of his kingdom, and was at length rewarded by him with the dignity of bashaw of the empire; whilst Algiers, now completely tributary to the Porte, received Hassan Aga, a Sardinian renegado, as the Turkish deputy.

From this period the history of Algiers for about a hundred years is one bloody series of piracy abroad, and sanguinary commotions at home.

Hassan gave the Spaniards no respite. He ravaged not only their coasts, but even those of the Papal States, and other parts of Italy. A most formidable armament was fitted out against him by the emperor Charles V., at the instigation of Paul III., the pope of Rome. This expedition was, in some respects, like the armanda which threatened England with Spanish bigotry in the reign of Elizabeth, and was attended with similar success. Confident in his numbers and equipments, Charles pushed his projects with every probability of success, whilst Hassan, dispirited by the weakness of his fortifications and the paucity of his garrison, was on the point of surrender, when the predictions of a mad prophet, named Yusef, encouraged him to a more desperate resistance. The predictions of the approaching ruin of the Spaniards were soon verified. The war of elements—storms of wind, hail, rain—a general darkness—and violent earthquakes, combined to wreck the proud hopes of the Spanish monarch. His army, the finest, perhaps, Europe had seen for many an age, was scattered, destroyed, or taken captive; his navy in a few minutes was swallowed up, and the great deep closed over the relics, and arms, and human beings with which it was amply furnished; and he himself with dificulty escaped from the general destruction which pursued his ill-fated attempt. This extraordinary event took place on the 28th of October, 1541. The Spaniards never recovered from this loss, and their attempts to annoy the Algerines were henceforth inconsiderable. This may be considered as the most splendid victory which this freebooting state ever acquired.

In 1555, the Algerines under Pelha-Rais, the successor of Hassan, captured Bujeyah, which had been in possession of the Spaniards for fifty years. A period now occurs thickly clustered by names of those who were bashaws for brief periods, amongst which we find Hassan Corso, who was murdered to make room for Tekeli, who in turn was assassinated by Yusef Calabres, and he was bashaw for only six days. Then came Hassan, the son of Hayradin, who defeated another attempt of the Spaniards with the loss of twelve thousand men. This Hassan was deposed by the aga of the Janissaries; then reinstated; again deposed by Achmet: and a third time made bashaw, when he undertook the seige of Marsalquiver, near Oran, with a powerful army, but which he was compelled to raise on the approach of the celebrated Doria. He was again recalled from his government, and died at Constantinople, A. D. 1567. His successor, Mahomet, showed prudence, and by his wise regulations laid the foundation of Algerine independence. He was deposed by the notorious renegado Ochali, who reduced Tunis to the subjection of Algiers, only that in a few years it might be made a pachalic of the Porte, in 1586. In the preceding year, the enterprising spirit of these pirates carried them through the straits of Gibraltar as far as the Canary islands, which they plundered. In the beginning of the following century the Algerines effected one leading step toward independence, in obtaining from the Porte permission to appoint a dey of their own; but the sultan still retained a bashaw, whose office was confined to watching that the interests of his master did not suffer. Their power, augmented by an influx of the Moors who were expelled from Spain in 1609, was now formidable; and the states of Europe, with the exception of the Dutch, quailed before them. Alliances were formed against them; and to the honour of France be it said, that her new navy was the first which dared openly avenge the cause of insulted Europe and suffering humanity. In 1617 the arms of Gaul fell with violence on the insolence of the pirates.

In 1623 Algiers declared herself independent of the Porte, and for the next thirty years pillaged without distinction whatever vessels of the Europeans fell in their way; then another collision took place between them and the French navy; and soon after a large fleet under Hali Pinchinin, after carrying off immense booty from the Italian coast, was defeated by

the Venetians under Capello, with very considerable loss, which greatly crippled their power. This relapse was but for two years; when, as it were, renovated by the misfortune, they scoured the whole sea with a fleet of sixty-five sail, and compelled the Dutch, the French, and English to court their favour. Louis XIV. at last, in the year 1681, provoked by some outrages which the pirates had committed on his coasts, ordered a powerful fleet and armament to be fitted out, with which he destroyed several of their vessels in the isle of Scio. In the following year he bombarded Algiers, and but for a sudden change of wind would have destroyed it. The return of the year saw the French admiral Du Quesne again before Algiers, who desisted not from his attack till he had completely humbled the Algerine audacity, by reducing their city to a heap of ruins. They sued for peace, which was granted, and all Christian captives were set at liberty. Taught a lesson by this humiliation, the Algerines paid some respect to other nations, and the English in particular were admitted into a treaty with them; who further enforced respect from the pirates by the capture of Gibraltar and Port Mahon. The eighteenth century presents little that is interesting in the history of this piratical state, except the union of the office of the Algerine dey and Turkish viceroy, in 1710; the capture of Oran in 1708; and its recapture in 1737.

On the 18th of August, 1816, Lord Exmouth, with a fleet of four ships of war, four frigates, and several vessels, bombs, &c., appeared before Algiers, to exact punishment for the barbarous massacre of a number of Europeans at Bona, on May 23, by two thousand of the Algerine infantry and cavalry. On the 27th of August, his lordship commenced an attack, which was completely successful. The whole of the Algerine navy was destroyed, and half the town demolished. Like the defeat received from Du Quesne one hundred and twenty-three years before, this disposed them to accept the terms offered by the British admiral. Christian slavery was abolished, and full reparation made; and on the 1st of September was beheld the proud and gratifying sight of the fulfilment of the conditions. Algiers disgorged its Christian slaves, and a large payment of money for the use of the several states which had suffered by its depredations. This was one of the most honourable triumphs achieved by the British flag. Since that time the dey has been embroiled with the Austrian states; but its most signal chastisement was left for the French to inflict.

During a conversation that took place between the dey and the French consul at Algiers, the former had the ill-mannered temerity to offer the Frenchman an insult, and even struck him. Redress was, of course, demanded; but so far from complying with the demand, the dey displayed a hostile feeling, and demolished the French post at La Callé. This being tantamount to a declaration of war, France fitted out a powerful armament, including a land force of thirty-eight thousand men, with a formidable train of artillery, under the command of General Bourmont. On the 14th of June, 1830, the French troops effected a landing, and after a feeble resistance, Algiers capitulated on the 5th of July. The French found in the treasury of the dey, gold and silver to the amount of nearly fifty millions of francs, besides an abundant supply of stores of various kinds. The towns of Oran and Bona soon after submitted. But the French subsequently met with considerable resistance from the bey of Oran, who, however, after a series of contests and negotiations, submitted, in 1837; and agreed to abandon the maritime parts of the province, and recognize the supremacy of the French in Africa. The occupation of Algiers (or, as it is now generally termed, ALGERIA) has been a work of more difficulty than its Gallic conquerors anticipated, and thousands of Europeans have annually perished by sickness and the sword since the

territory has been wrested from the fierce Arabs in whose possession it had so long remained unmolested.

The government is at present administered by the commander-in-chief of the French forces in Algiers, who holds the rank of governor-general. It was previously vested in a dey, or pacha, who was at the head of the Turkish soldiery, and who exercised absolute power. The religion of the state is now Roman Catholic, and many mosques have been converted into Christian churches: but the great bulk of the people profess Mohammedanism; and although the French have established schools of instruction in all the principal towns, the Moors show no desire to read any other book than the Koran. The language is mostly Arabic, but mixed with Moorish and Phœnician words. What effect the introduction of European laws, arts, and sciences into this part of Africa may have, time alone can show; but if we consider how great were its population and influence in distant ages, and how formidable it has since proved under the domination of a brutal horde of pirates, we may fairly expect that the fruits of a superior civilization will, ere long, appear.

THE HISTORY

OF

AUSTRALIA AND POLYNESIA.

AUSTRALIA.

Until the last century it was believed that a great continent existed in the Southern Ocean, to which the name of *Terra Australis* was given; it being inferred that the different points of land discovered to the south of the islands of Java and Celebes, and of the Cape of Good Hope, afforded ample proof of such a theory. The discoveries of modern geographers, however, go to invalidate the hypothesis that there is any continent south of America.

Under the name of Australia (or Australasia) and Polynesia, is comprehended a maritime division of the globe, in contradistinction to the older terrene divisions of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, being altogether a classification of islands, including no one continent under a general name, like the other divisions of the world, in which various kingdoms are circumscribed by one shore; and so far it is an anomaly in geographical classification. We shall first speak of the more important division, now known as Australia.

This includes the semi-continental mass of land hitherto known as New Holland, and the islands of New Zealand, New Caledonia, New Hebrides, Queen Charlotte's Islands, Solomon's Archipelago, New Britain, New Ireland, New Hanover, Admiralty Isles, and Papua or New Guinea. In no part of the globe can greater extremes of barrenness and fertility occur, than in the various islands comprehended in Australia. On the

shores of New Holland, its most prominent feature, we find fruitful plains covered with verdure eastward, and on the south and south-western coast nothing but naked hillocks of sand. This island, if such indeed it is to be called, almost equal in size to the whole of continental Europe, presents of itself an unequalled and almost unexplored field for geological enquiry.

The natives of Australia, are, for the major part, of a negro character; and nowhere is human nature found in a more depraved state. An enormous head, flat countenance, and long, slender extremities, mark their physical conformation, together with an acuteness of sight and hearing. Captain Cook's description of this race has been verified by every succeeding observer. "The skin," says he, "is the colour of wood soot, or what is usually called chocolate color. Their features are far from disagreeable; their noses are not flat, nor are their lips thick: their teeth are white and even, and their hair naturally long and black; it is, however, cropped short." It seems that a decidedly inferior variety of the human race is found in Australia, and has spread itself a considerable distance north and east among the islands of Polynesia and the eastern archipelago. The Australian is puny and weak compared with the African negro; and his intellectual attainments are quite on as low a scale as his physical powers.

NEW HOLLAND.

The Portuguese and Spaniards appear to have visited this region in the sixteenth century, but it was the Dutch who first made it known to Europe. In 1605 they coasted it along the western shore as far as 13° 45′ of south latitude; the farthest point of land in their map being called Cape Keer-Weer, or Turn-again. In 1616 the west coasts were discovered by Dirck Hartag, commander of an outward-bound vessel from Holland to India; and in the year 1801 there was found, by some of the navigators by whom that coast was visited, a plate of tin, with an inscription and dates, in which it was mentioned that it had been left by him. In 1618, another part of the coast was discovered by Zeachen, who gave it the name of Arnheim and Dieman; though a different part from what afterwads received the name of Van Dieman's Land from Tasman. In 1619, Jan Van Edels gave his name to a southern part of New Holland; and another part received the name of Leuwen's Land. Peter Van Nuytz gave his name, in 1627, to the coast that communicates with Leuwen; and another part bore the name of De Witt's Land. In 1628, Peter Carpenter, a Dutchman, discovered the great Gulf of Carpentaria. In 1687, Dampier, an Englishman, sailed from Timor, and coasted the western part of New Holland. In 1699, he left England, with a design to explore this country; as the Dutch suppressed whatever discoveries had been made by them. He sailed along the western coast of it, from 15 to 28 degrees of latitude. He then returned to Timor; from whence he sailed again; examined the isles of Papua; coasted New Guinea; discovered the passage that bears his name, and also New Britain; and sailed back to Timor along New Guinea. This is the same Dampier who, between the years 1683 and 1691, sailed round the world, by changing his ships. Notwithstanding the attempts of all these navigators, the eastern part of this vast country was unknown till Captain Cook made his voyages, and, by fully exploring that part of the coast, gave his country a title to the possession of it; which it accordingly took, under the name of New South Wales, in 1787. An act passed in parliament, in 1779, to establish a colony in it, where criminals condemned to be transported should be sent to pass their time of servitude.

NEW ZEALAND.

This is a group of islands in the South Pacific Ocean, which was discovered by Tasman, in 1642. He traversed the eastern coast, from latitude 34 to 43 south, and entered a strait; but being attacked by the natives soon after he came to an anchor, in the place to which he gave the name of Murderer's Bay, he did not go on shore. He called the country Staten Land, in honour of the States General; though it has been generally distinguished, in maps and charts, by the name of New Zealand. In 1770, it was circumnavigated by Captain Cook, who found it to consist of two large islands; the northernmost, called by the natives, *Aienomawie;* and the southernmost, *Tovaipoenammoo;* separated by a strait which he named after himself. The coast is indented with deep bays, affording excellent shelter for shipping. There are also several rivers, particularly in the northern island, capable of receiving large ships, in which the spring-tide rises ten feet perpendicular.

Captain Cook, in 1773, planted several spots of ground with European garden seeds; and in 1777, in several of these spots, although totally neglected and overrun with weeds, were found cabbages, onions, leeks, parsley, radishes, mustard, &c., and a few fine potatoes, greatly improved by change of soil. In other places everything had been rooted out to make room for temporary villages. Captain Cook also introduced European poultry; and on his last visit had the satisfaction to find them increased, in a wild and domestic state, beyond all danger of being exterminated. From that period, the coasts were occasionally visited by whalers, and some communication was held with the natives; but until 1815, when a missionary station was established there, no permanent settlement appears to have been made by any people. At the general peace, the right of Great Britain to these islands was recognized; but no constituted authority was placed over New Zealand till 1833, when a sub-governor from New South Wales was sent to reside there. Meantime the shores had become infested by marauding traders and adventurers of the worst class, who attempted to obtain from the natives large tracts of land by the most fraudulent means. In order to remedy this evil as far as possible, and to put a stop to such practices in future, New Zealaud was, in 1840, constituted a colony dependent on New South Wales, and a governor appointed; a commission was also appointed to inquire into the validity of all claims to land, &c.

The New Zealanders are tall, strong, active and well-shaped; being superior in every respect to the negro race of Australia and the eastern Archipelago. Their colour is in general a dark chestnut, though many bear a resemblance to the gipsy, and some have even the complexion of a European brunette. Were it not for the disgusting practice of occasionally feasting on the prisoners they take in battle, and the crime of infanticide—both of which barbarities are said to be rapidly on the decline—it might be said the New Zealanders were less addicted to the vices of savage life than most other savages. These islands lie between the 34th and 48th degrees of south latitude, and between the 166th and 180th degrees of east longitude, being the antipodes of London and other parts of Great Britain.—The other isles belonging to the Australian division are too unimportant to render a description necessary.

POLYNESIA.

This name, as we have already observed, is given by modern geographers, to various groups of islands in the Great Pacific Ocean, lying east of the Asiatic isles and Australia, and on both sides of the equator; stretching through an extent of about 5100 miles from north to south, and 3600 from east to west. Everything bespeaks their submarine creation, and in many are positive evidences of volcanic agency. They are sometimes divided into Northern and Southern Polynesia, and classed in the following groups:—Pelew Islands; Carolines; Ladrones; Sandwich Islands; Friendly Islands; Gallapagos; Admiralty Isles; New Ireland; New Britain, and New Hanover; Solomon's Isles; New Hebrides, and New Caledonia; Queen Charlotte's Islands; Navigators' Islands; Society Islands; Marquesas: Pitcairn Island, &c. Of these we shall only mention a few; as they can hardly be said to come within the scope of a work professedly historical; though their entire omission might be regarded as a defect.

LADRONES, OR MARIANNE ISLANDS.

The Ladrones are a cluster of islands belonging to Spain, lying in the North Pacific Ocean, between the 12th and 21st degrees of north latitude, and about the 145th degree of east longitude. They were discovered by Magellan, who gave them the name of *Ladrone Islands*, or the *Islands of Thieves*, from the thievish disposition of the inhabitants. At the time of this discovery, the natives were totally ignorant of any other country than their own, and, as it is said, were actually unacquainted with the element of fire, till Magellan, provoked by their repeated thefts, burned one of their villages. At the latter end of the 17th century, they obtained the name of the Marianne Islands, from the Queen of Spain, Mary Anne of Austria, mother of Charles II., at whose expense missionaries were sent thither to propagate the Christian faith.

Though plunged in the deepest ignorance, and destitute of everything valued by the rest of mankind, no nation ever shewed more presumption, or a greater conceit of themselves, than these islanders; for to use the words of an old voyager, they looked on themselves as the only sensible and polished people in the world. As Japan lies within six or seven days sail of them, some have been induced to believe that the first inhabitants came from that empire; but, from their greater resemblance to the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands, than to the Japanese, it is more probable that they came from the former. Commodore Anson visited the Ladrones in 1742, and describes Tirrian, one of the group, as abounding with everything necessary to human subsistence, and presenting at the same time a pleasant and delightful appearance, where hill and valley, rich verdure and spreading trees, formed a happy intermixture. Subsequent navigators, however, found the island to have been deserted, and become an uninhabited wilderness. The natives of the the Ladrones are tall, robust, and active, managing their canoes with admirable adroitness. Guajan is the largest island in the group, and the population consists of settlers from Mexico and the Philippine Islands.

FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

The Friendly Islands are a group or cluster of islands, said to be upwards of one hundred in number, in the South Pacific Ocean. They received their name from the celebrated Captain Cook, in the year 1773, in consideration of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. The chief islands are Anamooka, Tongataboo, Lefooga, and Eooa. Abel Jansen Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of upwards of sixty. The three islands which Tasman saw, he named Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Middleburg. Tongataboo is the residence of the sovereign, and the chiefs. These islands are fertile, and in general highly cultivated. Eooa is described as a beautiful spot: the land rising gently to a considerable height, presents the eye with an extensive view. Captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of the island. "While I was surveying this delightful prospect," says the captain, "I could not help flattering myself with the pleasing idea, that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle, brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity, that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity." Of the nature of their government, no more is known than the general outline. The power of the king is unlimited, and the life and property of the subjects are at his disposal; and instances enough were seen to prove, that the lower order have no property, nor safety for their persons, but at the will of the chiefs to whom they respectively belong.

SOCIETY ISLANDS.

The Society Islands, in the Pacific Ocean, are eight in number; viz., Otaheite, Huaheine, Ulitea, Otaha, Bolabola, Maurowa, Toobaee, Tabooyamanoo. They are situated between the latitude of 16° 10′ and 16° 55′ south, and between the longitude of 150° 57′ and 152° west. The people, religion, language, customs and manners, soil and productions, are nearly the same as Otaheite,—which was discovered by Captain Wallis in 1767, who called it King George the Third's Island. Bougainville, a French circumnavigator, next arrived at it, in 1768, and stayed ten days. Captain Cook, in the Endeavour, next visited it, in 1769, in company with Mr. Banks, Dr Solander, and other learned men, to observe the transit of Venus, and staid three months; and it was visited by Captain Cook in his two succeeding voyages; since which time the Spaniards and other Europeans have called there. It consists of two peninsulas, great part of which is covered with woods, consisting of bread-fruit trees, palms, cocoanuts, and all tropical vegetation. The people of this and the neighbouring islands, were the most honest and civilized of any in the Pacific Ocean; but it appears certain that the inhabitants have degenerated rather than improved since Cook's time.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

The Sandwich Islands, in the North Pacific Ocean, consist of eleven in number. They are called by the natives Owyhee, Mowee, Ranai, Moro-

toi, Taboorowa, Woakoo, Atooi, Neeheeneow, Orehowa, Morotinne, and Takoora; all inhabited except the last two. They were discovered by Captain Cook in 1777 and 1778. Goats, and European seeds, were left by the English at their departure the first time; but the possession of the goats soon gave rise to a contest between two districts, in which the breed was entirely destroyed. The inhabitants are undoubtedly of the same race as those that possess the islands south of the equator; and in their person and manner, approach nearer to the New Zealanders than to their less distant neighbours, either of the Society or Friendly Islands. Tattooing the body is practised by the whole of them. As these islands are not united under one government, wars are frequent among them. The same system of subordination prevails here as at the other islands, the same absolute authority on the part of the chiefs, and the same unresisting submission on the part of the people. The government is monarchial, and hereditary.

Owyhee, the eastermost and largest of these islands, was discovered by Captain Cook, on the 30th November, 1778, on his return from his voyage northward. Having circumnavigated the island, and anchored in a bay, called Karakakooa, he found great alteration in the conduct of the natives, and a general disposition to theft. Still no hostilities were commenced, honours were paid the commander, and on going ashore, he was received with ceremonies little short of adoration. A vast quantity of hogs, and other provisions, were procured for the ships; and on the 4th of February, 1789, they left the island, not without most magnificent presents from the chiefs, such as they had never received in any part of the world. Unluckily, they encountered a storm on the 6th and 7th of the same month, during which the Resolution sprung the head of her foremast in such a manner, that they were obliged to return to Karakakooa bay to have it repaired. On the 13th, one of the natives being detected in stealing the tongs from the armourer's forge in the Discovery, was dismissed with a pretty severe flogging: in the afternoon of the same day, another having snatched up the tongs and a chisel, jumped overboard with them, and swam for the shore, and having got on board of a canoe, escaped. These tools were soon after returned, through the means of Pareah, a chief. But Captain Cook was not satisfied with the recovery of the stolen goods; he insisted upon having the thief, or the canoe which carried him, by way of reprisal. This brought on hostilities. The Indians attacked the sailors with stones, and drove them to their boats. And although the difference appeared to be presently adjusted, the jealousy of the natives subsequently broke forth in a furious assault, on an attempt to induce the King of the Islands to go on board one of the ships. On this occasion, Sunday, 14th February, 1779, Captain Cook was killed.

ICELAND.

This is a large island in the northern part of the Atlantic Ocean, between the 63rd and 67th degrees of north latitude, and between the 16th and 23rd degrees of west longitude from London. It is of a very irregular shape, and contains about fifty-six thousand inhabitants. At what time the island was first peopled is uncertain. The Icelandic chronicles go no farther back than the arrival of the Norwegians, about the year 861, when Naddodr, a pirate, was driven on the coast. In 864, Garder Suafarson, a Swede, encouraged by the account given by Naddodr, went in search of it, sailed round it, and gave it the name of Gardersholmer, or Garder's Island. Having remained in Iceland during the winter, he returned in the

spring to Norway, where he described the new-discovered island as a pleasant, well-wooded country. This excited a desire in Floke, another Swede, reputed the best navigator of his time, to undertake a voyage thither. Floke staid the whole winter in the island, and, because he found great quantities of floating ice on the north side, he called it Iceland, which name it has ever since retained.

In 874, Ingolfr, and his friend Liefr, established a colony, and in sixty years the whole island was inhabited. The tyranny of Harold, king of Norway, contributed not a little to the population of Iceland. Besides the Norwegians, new colonies arrived from different nations. In 928 they chose a chief; but his powers were inconsiderable, and the Icelanders began to wage war against each other. They remained, however, free from a foreign yoke till 1261, when they became subject to the Norwegians. Afterwards Iceland, together with Norway, became subject to Denmark. Iceland is famous for the volcanoes with which it abounds, appearing, indeed, to owe its existence to submarine volcanic agency, and to have been upheaved at intervals from the bottom of the sea. Tracts of lava traverse the island and almost in every direction; besides which the country abounds with other mineral masses indicative of an igneous origin. The burning mountains, so dreadful in their effect, seldom begin to throw out fire without giving warning. A subterraneous noise precedes the eruption for several days, with a roaring and crackling in the place from whence the fire is about to burst forth. The immediate sign is the bursting of the mass of ice, or snow, which covers the mountain, with a dreadful noise. The flames then issue forth, and stones, ashes, &c. are thrown out to vast distances. Egbert Olassen relates, that in the eruption of Kattle-gia, in 1755, a stone weighing two hundred and ninety pounds was thrown to the distance of twenty-four English miles.

Besides more than thirty volcanic mountains, there exists an immense number of small cones and craters, from which streams of melted substances have been poured forth over the surrounding regions. Twenty-three eruptions of Hecla are recorded since the occupation of the island by Europeans; the first of which occurred in 1004. It will be sufficient to give an account of that which happened in 1783, and which, from its violence, seems to have been unparalleled in history. Its first signs were observed on the first of June, by a trembling of the earth in the western part of the province of Skapterfiall; it increased gradually till the eleventh, and became at last so great, that the inhabitants quitted their houses and lay at night in tents on the ground. A continual smoke, or steam, was perceived rising out of the earth in the northern and uninhabited parts of the country. Three fire spouts, as they were called, broke out in different places; one in Ulfarsdal, a little to the east of the river Skapta; the other two were a little to the westward of the river Ilverfisfliot. The three fire spouts, or streams of lava, united in one after having risen a considerable height in the air, arrived at last at such an amazing altitude as to be seen at the distance of upwards of two hundred miles; the whole country, for double that distance, being enveloped in the densest smoke and steam, while the atmosphere was filled with sand, brimstone, and ashes, in such a manner as to occasion continual darkness. Considerable damage was done by the pumice-stone, which fell red-hot in great quantities. Along with these, a tenacious substance, like pitch, fell in abundance. This shower having continued for three days, the fire became very visible, and at last arrived at the amazing height already mentioned. Sometimes it appeared in a continual stream, at others in flashes, with a perpetual noise like thunder, which lasted the whole summer. The obscurity occasioned by this extraordinary eruption, seems to have reached as far as Great Britain; for, during the whole summer of 1783, a haze or dullness appeared to darken the atmosphere. The whole ex-

tent of ground covered by the lava, was computed to be ninety miles long, by forty-two in breadth; the depth of the lava being from sixteen to twenty fathoms. Twelve rivers were dried up, twenty-one villages were destroyed, and two hundred and twenty-four persons lost their lives. After this eruption, two new islands were thrown up in the sea; one of about three miles in circumference, and about a mile in height, at the distance of a hundred miles south-west from Iceland, in one hundred fathoms water. The other lay to the north-west, between Iceland and Greenland. Both these islands subsequently disappeared.

Iceland abounds also with hot and boiling springs, called *geysers*, some of which throw the water into the air to the surprising height of from two hundred to three hundred feet. These are, indeed, the most remarkable phenomena in Iceland. The great geyser, or principal fountain of this kind, rises from a tube or funnel, seventy-eight feet in perpendicular depth, and from eight to ten feet in diameter at the bottom, but gradually widening till it terminates in a capacious basin. The jets take place at intervals of about six hours; and when the water, in a violent state of ebulition, begins to rise and fill the basin, subterraneous noises, like the distant roar of cannon, may be heard, the earth is slightly shaken, and the agitation increases, till at length a column of water is suddenly thrown up, to a vast height, as already stated. After playing for a time like an immense artificial fountain, a column of steam rushes up with great violence, and a thundering noise terminates the eruption. All the hot waters have an incrusting quality; in some places they taste of sulphur, in others not, but when drank as soon as cold, they taste like common boiled water. This island is committed to a governor, who resides at Bassa-stadr; he has under him a bailiff, two laymen, a sheriff, and twenty-two sysselmen, or magistrates, who superintend small districts; and almost everything is decided according to the laws of Denmark, to whom it belongs.

At a period when most parts of continental Europe were in a state of rude ignorance, the inhabitants of this remote island were well acquainted with poetry and history. The most flourishing period of Icelandic literature appears to have been from the twelfth to the end of the thirteenth century; but even during the last three centuries, Iceland has produced several eminently learned men. At present there is no want of disposition on the part of the people to apply to literature, but they wisely attend more to solid branches of learning than to the lays and legends of their ancient sages. Domestic education is universal; there are few among them who cannot read and write, and many among the better class would be distinguished by their taste and learning in the most cultivated society.

THE HISTORY OF AMERICA.

This vast continent comprises nearly one half of the habitable globe. It is supposed by some who have given the matter a particular investigation, to have been partially known to the ancients; but, be that as it may, the glory of its discovery in modern history belongs to Christoval Colon, a native of the republic of Genoa, better known to us as Christopher Columbus. This enterprising man, after many fruitless attempts to obtain assistance to enable him to prosecute his elaborate speculations in geography, discovered the island of St. Salvador, Oct. 12th, 1492; and six years afterwards he reached the main continent at the mouth of the Orinoco, August 1st, 1498.

The discovery of the north continent of America belongs to the family of the Cabots, Venetian by birth, but who were residing in Bristol. The father and three sons set out in the year 1497, stimulated by the fame of Columbus, and under the patronage of Henry VII. of England. They discovered several islands, and coasted the whole of the main-land of the northern continent down to the Floridas. Strange as it may appear, the honour of giving a name to these immense discoveries, was gained by Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, who accompanied Alonzo de Ojeda, as pilot, and on returning published the first account of the several countries; from which circumstance the newly-discovered world was called America.

The Brazilian coast was first approached by Alvarez de Cabral, a Portuguese admiral, in 1500; and Florida by Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, in 1512. In the eastern part of the peninsula, called Yucatan, the natives were found clothed in cotton garments, and exhibiting other marks of civilization, by Hernandez Cordova, A. D. 1517. The expedition which followed this discovery led to the conquest of Mexico.

The spirit of discovery was now active, and all the great European courts emulated one another in affording facilities to carry into effect the enterprising efforts of numerous able and adventurous navigators, who successively prosecuted the attempt, and immortalized their names by the successes which they gained. The history of the principal colonies and states which arose from these discoveries will be given in due course.

America is divided into North and South. The principal colonies of the first were made by England and France; those of the South by Spain and Portugal. The distinguishing spirit of the respective mother countries seems to have been infused into the infant states; for while the southern division is rent by crude aspirants after liberty, the greater part of North America stands conspicuous—a mighty nation, growing in all the essentials of greatness, and already worthy to rival the leading European states. The vigour of the United States is that of youth; while the strength of the European dynasties assimilates very closely to the condition of Age—some of them strong, it is true, in their gray hairs, but others *effete*, and tottering to decay.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

CANADA.

This is the most important province possessed by Great Britain in North America. Its history is closely interwoven with that of the United States, with the people of which it has been, both under its original and present masters, in almost constant collision. Founded by the French, in 1608, the colonists were for many years in danger of being overwhelmed by the native Indians, with whom at length they entered into treaties, which enabled them to annoy very materially the neighbouring states under the British jurisdiction. Twenty years after the founding of Quebec, the right of trading with Canada was granted exclusively to a company of French merchants, who, in the following years, were dispossessed of Quebec by Sir David Keith. This conquest remained in the hands of the British till it was ceded at the treaty of St. Germaine.

In 1663 the West India Company obtained the exclusive right of commerce for forty years, and Canada for thirty years enjoyed tranquillity, and its concomitant, prosperity; which were interrupted by a bold but unsuccessful expedition of the people of New England, consisting of one thousand two hundred or one thousand three hundred men under the command of Sir William Phipps. This attempt was repeated about seventeen years afterwards (1711), on a larger scale, but shared the same result, although four thousand veteran British troops were employed.

Little occurs in the affairs of Canada deserving notice, till the breaking out of the continental war, in 1756, when Canada became the theatre of military scenes, which ended, three years afterwards, in the conquest of it by the British. The English general, Wolfe, though defeated in his first operations by the French, at length, after an action sustained by equal gallantry on both sides, obtained possession of Quebec. In this exploit the opposing generals, Montcalm and Wolfe, are equally renowned for spirit and courage; one did not survive the mortification of defeat—the other only lived to hear the shouts of victory. This conquest was ratified to the English by the treaty of 1763. Since that period it long enjoyed comparative peace; for with the exception of one unsuccessful expedition sent against it during the revolutionary war, under General Montgomery, who was killed, Canada was exempt from military operations till the last American war, when it became the theatre of several bloody frays, but resisted, by means of the British troops, the reiterated attacks of the Americans. Canada is now rising in importance. The facility of commerce is increased, and it may be hoped that this colony will be a valuable acquisition to the British crown

Sir Charles Metcalfe, the present governor, who was appointed on the death of Sir Charles Bagot, in 1843, is a man of great experience and ability. "From the first moment of his assumption of the vice-regal office," says the Montreal Gazette, "Sir Charles Metcalfe, who had been used to represent the crown of England with honour and success, in other parts of the globe, found himself, and most naturally so, in a state of antagonism,' as they very correctly phrase it, with those who were converting Canada into a democracy, and nullifying the royal power. He found the whole power of the provinces united and centralized by the act of Lord Sydenham, and the royal and paternal influence abdicated by that of Sir Charles Bagot. He found a democracy concentrated in one chamber and ruled by one cabal; claiming the right despotically to introduce

into the other chamber any number of new members necessary to register its decrees—ay, and exercising it, too; demanding that the power of the crown and of the mother country should be a mere nullity, and asserting that the only duty of their representative was to transfer its patronage to them for the purpose of perpetually confirming their own. Such was the system which Sir Charles Metcalfe found in full operation; to which, from the first, he intimated himself to be in a state of 'antagonism;' to which he opposed himself under the great difficulties which circumstances had arrayed against him; against which he has now taken his stand, and called on everything that is loyal and constitutional, on every man who loves the British connexions and respects the principles of constitutional liberty as distinguished from mere democracy, to rally around him."

We make no mention in this place of the internal insurrections and piratical invasions of Canada in the years 1838 and 1839, but refer the reader to the "History of England," p. 739, and the "History of the United States," p. —, *et seq.*

NEWFOUNDLAND.

This large island of North America, situated near the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is supposed to have been first discovered by the Norwegians, about the beginning of the 11th century; be it so or not, it was not generally made known till John Cabot visited it in 1497, and gave it its present name. Immediately after this, we find that an extensive fishery was carried on, by the Portuguese and French, on the neighbouring banks; but no successful attempt at a settlement was made till 1623, when Lord Baltimore established a colony on the south-east part of the island, and appointed his son governor. In 1633 some colonists arrived from Ireland, and in 1654 a few English settlers came over, having the authority of a parliamentary grant. The Newfoundland fishery has for nearly a century been the occasion of disputes between the English, French, and Americans; though for a great portion of the time the English were enabled to monopolize the trade. Since the peace of 1815, however, it has been very different; the French and Americans enjoying the greatest share of it.

The other *British Possessions* in North America are New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Prince Edward's Island; but want of space prevents us from entering on the particular history of either.

GREENLAND.

Under the name of Greenland is denoted the most easterly parts of America, stretching towards the North Pole, and likewise some islands to the northward of the continent of Europe, lying in very high latitudes. This country is divided into West and East Greenland. West Greenland had long been considered to be a part of the continent of America, but recent geographers seem to think it an island. It is bounded on the west by Baffin's bay, on the south by Davis' straits, and on the east by the North Atlantic Ocean.

This country was first peopled by Europeans from Iceland, headed by Eric Rande in the eighth century; and a regular intercourse was maintained between Norway and Greenland till the year 1406; from that time all correspondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Greenland

buried in oblivion. It is supposed that a nation called Schrellings, whose descendants still inhabit the western part, got the better of the settlers, and exterminated them. All that can be learned from the most authentic records is, that Greenland was divided into two districts, called West Bygd, and East Bygd; that the western division contained four parishes, and one hundred villages; and the eastern district was still more flourishing. This colony, in ancient times, certainly comprehended twelve extensive parishes, one hundred and ninety villages, a bishop's see, and two monasteries. Many attempts have been made to re-discover the east country, without effect, by the Danes and the English. The land has been seen, but the ice has always prevented any approach to the shore.

The Greenland Company, at Bergen, in Norway, transported a colony to the west coast; and in 1712, the Rev. Hans Egede, and others, endeavoured to reach the eastern district by coasting, but were obliged to return, owing to continual storms. That part of West Greenland which is now settled by the Danes and Norwegians, lies between the 64th and 68th degrees of north latitude; and thus far, it is said, the climate is temperate. To the northward of the 68th degree, the cold is prodigiously intense; and towards the end of August all the coast is covered with ice, which never thaws till April or May, and sometimes June. Thunder and lightning rarely happen; but the aurora borealis is very frequent and splendidly luminous. The Greenlanders are constantly employed either in fishing or hunting; at sea they pursue the whale, morse, seal, fish, and sea-fowl, and on shore they hunt the rein-deer.

THE HISTORY OF MEXICO.

This rich and interesting country may be regarded as altogether a Spanish colony, though it is no longer dependent on Spain, having become a federal republic. Discovered by Fernando Cortez, A. D. 1519, it was by him taken possession of in the name of the Spanish government. The exploits by which he made himself master of this country, seem rather to belong to romance than history; the circumstances of the age, and the nature and character of the opposing powers, throw an air of universal interest over operations so multiform and diversified—as the conquest of a great and powerful state by a body of men hitherto unseen by them, possessing all the advantages of skill and experience in war, and resolution and enterprize in action.

The first conquest made by Cortez was on the river Tabasco; after which, landing at St. Juan de Ulloa, he erected a fort, where he received two ambassadors sent by the emperor of Mexico with offers of assistance. A haughty answer was the reply of Cortez; and gifts of the most costly character were heaped upon him by the natives, in the hope of conciliating peace and preventing his further advance. Dangers, however, encompassed his steps. Sedition broke out in his own camp, which he had the address not only to quell, but turn to his own advantage. A new town was founded, called La Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz. Still a more alarming mutiny showed itself, which he again converted into the means of executing a measure fraught with imminent risk, but calculated to superinduce the deadly courage of despair. This measure was the destruction of the fleet. Soon after this, being joined by one of the native caciques, with a force of little more than one thousand men, fifteen horses, and six cannons, he entered the state of the Tlascalans, whom, after a desperate

resistance of fourteen days, he subdued, and converted into allies. At Cholula he massacred six thousand of the natives in revenge for their treachery. Success now wafted his banners, and the capital of the empire lay before him. Received by the emperor Montezuma at the head of his nobles, Cortez was conducted to a house in the city, which he fortified in the strongest manner possible. It appears there was a prediction among the Mexicans, that a strange people should come to chastise them for their sins—a piece of superstition of which Cortez availed himself. By treachery he obtained possession of the person of Montezuma, whom he kept a prisoner for six months. Worn out at length, the Mexican emperor acknowledged himself a vassal of the Spanish throne. In the meanwhile Cortez lost no opportunity of strengthening his power, by surveys of the country, and dividing the spoils among his followers.

He was again on the point of losing the fruit of his exertions; for Velasquez, who commanded the expedition from which Cortez had been despatched from Cuba, hearing of his success, sent out a large force under Narvaez, to seize him, and take possession of Mexico. This formidable danger Cortez frustrated, as well by bribes as the rapidity of his movements, almost without bloodshed. But this he observed gave fresh spirit to the Mexicans, who attacked him on his return, and wounded him in his fortress. The wretched Montezuma, who had been placed in the van to deter the assailants from prosecuting their attacks, was wounded, and died of a broken heart. Cortez was compelled to evacuate the place secretly, but only to return with a larger body of forces at the expiration of six months. We shortly afterwards find his head-quarters at Tezcuco, where, with the assistance of the Indians, he built a flotilla of thirteen ships. Reinforced with two hundred men, eight horses, and some military stores, he renewed the siege. Gallantly was the capital defended by Guatimozin, the new emperor, and Cortez was once taken prisoner, but rescued at the expense of a severe wound. Seventy-four days did the city hold out, although the ranks of Cortez were augmented by one hundred thousand Indians. August 12, 1512, beheld Guatimozin a prisoner, and his capital in the hands of the merciless invaders—merciless to him they were, for Cortez stained the lustre of his glory by putting the brave but ill-fated monarch to the torture. But there is even in this world a retributive justice; and worldly minds, however sublimed by courage and enterprize, generally encounter reverses similar in character to their own conduct. Success had excited envy; and Cortez was doomed to find that no courage and enterprize can be altogether free from reverses. Created captain-general of New Spain (the name he had given to his new conquest) even after an order had been issued, but not executed, for his arrest—established in high favour and honour with the emperor, his native master—endowed with a grant of large possessions in the New World—he had the mortification to find himself possessing only military command. The political government was vested in a royal ordinance. His enterprising spirit led him to the discovery of the great Californian gulf, but his glory was on the wane; irritated and disappointed, he returned to Europe to appeal against the proceedings of the royal ordinance, but without success; and he, who had barbarously tortured the gallant emperor of Mexico, died twenty-six years afterwards of a broken heart, A. D. 1547, in the 62nd year of his age.

Abstracting the interest which attended the discovery and first conquest of Mexico, or New Spain, the historian finds a tame succession of events, which claim but a very vague notice. From the year 1535 to 1808 there was a succession of fifty viceroys, one alone an American by birth. At the latter period a spirit broke forth, elicited by centuries of oppression and exclusive favour to Europeans, which led the Mexicans to offer resistance to the disunion of Spain. The dissensions were headed by Hidalgo, an enthusiastic patriot, who was proclaimed generalissimo, Sep-

tember 17, 1810. He unfortunately halted in his advance towards the capital, which gave the royalists time to rally, and enabled them to defeat his intentions a few months, and put him to death. But with him the spirit of independence vanished not. Morelos, a priest, assumed the command, and several princes were completely ensured to the side of liberty. A congress of forty members was called, but after the defeat and execution of Morelos, it was dissolved by General Teran, who succeeded him. After languishing for some time, the revolt was entirely quelled in 1819.

The change of system introduced into Spain by the cortes alarmed the ecclesiastics in Mexico, who, for their defence, elected Iturbide, under whom a bloodless revolution was effected, and Mexico maintained in all its rights, independent of the Spanish dominion, A. D. 1822. After an usurpation of the title of emperor for little more than one year, Iturbide was compelled to lay down his usurpation, and he retired to Leghorn.

A federal government was now formed, and sworn to, February 24, 1824. Still commotions arose, in one of which Iturbide, who had been induced to return, lost his life. Thenceforward the government has been almost in a continual turmoil, adverse parties fighting for the rule, and alternately overthrowing each other. The generals Pedrazzo, Guerrero, Arenas, Arista, Urrea, and others, rapidly succeeded in grasping after the shadow of power, were exalted, and debased. Bravo, Bustamente, and Santa Ana, more successful because more unscrupulous tyrants, managed for a time to monopolize what there was of authority. Each of them being in turn banished, General Herrera was, in 1845, elected president.

SOUTH AMERICA.

PERU.

The Peruvians have strange traditions that their progenitors were instructed in the arts of government and society by a man and woman, named Manco Capac and Mama Oello, from an island in a lake south of Peru. Under their instructions their kingdom was established, the royal family instituted, and success and power heaped upon them. This was about the thirteenth century; and previous to the arrival of the Spaniards in 1524, there had been fourteen successive monarchs or incas. On the arrival of the Europeans, Huana Capac was the reigning inca, who was taken prisoner and put to death by Pizarro, the discoverer of the country, although he had paid as much gold for his ransom as filled the place of his confinement. Pizarro likewise defeated his successor, and was created marquis of Atibellos, with large possessions in his conquest. His associate, Almagro, was also amply rewarded.

The city of Lima was founded by Pizarro, in 1533, but the Peruvians again took up arms under their inca, Manco Capac, and obtained some successes. A division took place between Pizarro and Almagro, the latter of whom having sustained a defeat, was taken prisoner and beheaded by his conqueror; who, two years afterward, was assassinated by Almagro's party. Various insurrections ensued with various successes, in which were conspicuous Vasco de Castro, Blasco Vela, Gonzales Pizarro, and Pedro de la Gasca, a priest. The royal authority of the Spaniards was at length established by the surrender and execution of the last inca, Tupac Amaru, by Toledo, the viceroy at Cuzco, A. D. 1562. Peru re-

mained in a state of uninterrupted vassalage to the Spanish crown, till the year 1782, when a descendant of the last inca, on being refused a title which had been granted his ancestor, Sayu Tupac, reared the standard of independence, round which the natives rallied with spirit, and in great numbers. For two years the war continued with alternate success. At last Jose Gabriel Condorcanqui was defeated, and with the rest of his family, excepting his brother Diego, put to death. The surviving brother shortly afterward shared the same fate, on suspicion of being engaged in a revolt at Quito.

Peru escaped awhile the rising spirit of insubordination, which convulsed the other colonies; but in 1809 commotions ensued, and juntas were established in the cities of Quito and La Paz, but were suppressed. In 1813 the independents of Chili were subjugated, but their efforts were triumphant in 1817, under General San Martin, and Chili was not only evacuated by the Peruvian army, but sent an army to retaliate upon Peru. Lima capitulated on July 6, 1821, and San Martin held levees in the viceregal palace. The independence of Peru was solemnly proclaimed on the 28th of the same month, and San Martin was proclaimed protector. This office he laid down, after calling together a constituent and sovereign congress, on the 20th of September, 1822.

Disinterested as was this abdication, it was not followed by prosperity to the country. The inadequacy of the junta appointed by the congress soon became manifest: the patriots were defeated early in 1823; the congress was dissolved, anarchy predominated, and Lima surrendered to the Spanish troops in July of the same year. They were partially dispossessed by Bolivar and the Chilians shortly afterward; and Peru, though safe from Spanish subjugation, was like a vessel tossed by every casual wave, unsafe, and exposed to conflicting dangers.

CHILI.

This country was subjugated in 1450, by the Peruvians, who retained possession of it till they were driven out by the Spaniards under Almagro, in 1535. The Spaniards were driven out by a general rising of the natives three years afterward. Pizarro attempted to colonize the country in 1540, and though opposed by the natives of Copiapo, he succeeded in conquering several provinces, and founded the city of Santiago, February, 1541. In attempting to extend his conquest he exposed his settlement, for six years, to the strong and repeated attacks of the Mapochians, in whose district Santiago was. His lieutenant, Pedro de Valdivia, to whom this extension was entrusted, made the Promancians his allies, and, surmounting various attacks and oppositions from the natives, founded the cities of Concepcion, Imperial, and Valdivia. He was shortly afterward defeated by his old enemies the Araucanians, who took him prisoner, and he was at length despatched by an old chief with the blow of a club.

These Araucanians kept the new colonies for several years in a continual state of alarm and distress; and so far succeeded in avenging their former defeats, as in 1598 to capture Vallansa, Valdivia, Imperial and other towns, and form the cities of Concepcion and Chillar. Nor were these the only losses sustained by the Spaniards. The Dutch plundered Chiloe, and massacred the garrison. The feuds between the Araucanians and Spaniards were settled by a treaty of peace in 1641, which lasted for fourteen years; then came a war of ten years, and another peace. In 1722 a conspiracy for the extirpation of the whites was happily frustrated. The colonists were gathered into towns, the country divided into provinces, and several new cities founded by the governor Don Josef Manto,

1742. A similar attempt by Don Antonia Gonzago, in respect of the Araucanians, relighted the torch of war, which blazed three years, when harmony was restored. Nor does anything of particular moment occur in the history of Chili, till 1809: then a successful revolutionary movement took place, and for four or five years fortune favoured the cause of independence; but in 1814, a royalist party from Peru nearly extinguished the flame of liberty. Success (in 1817) returned with General San Martin, who brought them freedom. D. Bernado O'Higgins was made director of the junta; and a fatal blow was struck at the power of the royalists on the 5th of April, 1818, when a large tract of coast was declared in a state of blockade by the Chilian navy under Lord Cochrane. In 1820, as stated in the history of Peru, the Chilian army under San Martin, liberated Peru from the Spanish thraldom, and San Martin retired into the ranks of private life in Chili. His example was followed by O'Higgins, who resigned the dictatorship, January 28, 1823, and was succeeded by General Freire, the commander-in-chief. The royalist flag, which was hoisted in September, near the city of Concepcion, was pulled down after a short period, and a free constitution appointed, with a popular government.

BRAZIL.

The honour of discovering this country is contested between Martin Behem, and Pedro Alvarez Cabral, at the close of the fifteenth century. It was originally called Santa Cruz by Cabral, but afterward Brazil, from the name of a wood produced there. It was first colonized by some refugee Jews, in 1548, banished from Portugal, and was fostered by the able guidance of Governor de Sonza, and the blandishments of the Jesuits. In 1624, San Salvador was taken possession of by the Dutch, who were in turn defeated by an armament of Spaniards under Frederic de Toledo.

The Dutch, in 1630, succeeded in making themselves masters of Demerara, Paraiba, and Rio Grande. Maurice of Nassau added Scara, Seregipee, and the greater part of Bahia; and the whole of Brazil was on the point of yielding to their arms, when the revolution which drove Philip IV. from the Portuguese throne, afforded an opportunity for both the Dutch and Portuguese to expel the Spaniards from Brazil. By an agreement between them, the country received a plural title, being called Brazils from the circumstance that both the Dutch and Portuguese possessed almost equal parts of it. By conquest and treaty the whole at length fell to Portugal.

In 1806, the royal family of Portugal, driven from Europe by the invasion of the French, migrated to Brazil, which from that period has risen rapidly in importance, independence, and strength. In 1817, a revolution broke out in Pernambuco, which failed. A free constitution was passed, and the king returned to Lisbon. Subsequently the prince-regent, on his birth-day, October 12, 1822, was proclaimed constitutional emperor of Brazil, independent of the Portuguese throne—a measure which has since been formally recognised by the government of the parent country.

THE REPUBLIC OF LA PLATA, OR UNITED PROVINCES.

The title of the United Provinces is of modern date, as the following brief outline of the history of this part of the New World will exhibit. Juan Diaz de Solis, a Spaniard, is said to have been the first adventurer who explored the country, and took possession of it, A. D. 1513. Sebas-

tian Cabot, in 1526, in the La Plata, discovered the island of St. Gabriel, the river St. Salvador, and the Paraguay.

Buenos Ayres was founded in 1535, by Don Pedro de Mendoza. This did not flourish much, on account of the restricted state of commerce, which was, however, gradually relaxed, and in 1748 the annual flota made its last voyage. A free trade with several American ports began in 1774, and an extension to the Spanish ports was granted in 1778. Under a viceroy, trade augmented, and commercial prosperity ensued. Buenos Ayres was captured in 1806 by General Beresford, with a British army, which was in turn compelled to surrender a few weeks afterward to General Liniers, a French officer, at the head of a body of militia. Sir Home Popham, with five thousand men, having captured Fort Maldonado, attacked Monte Video, without success; but, reinforced by Sir Samuel Auchmuty, at length carried the town by storm. The operations were extended under General Whitelocke and General Crawford, who with twelve thousand men renewed the attack upon Buenos Ayres, but were defeated and captured by the native militia. Liniers, who had contributed so largely to this defeat, was raised by the people to the viceroyalty, upon the expulsion of Sobremonte for cowardice.

The United Provinces escaped not the swell of that storm which the French invasion stirred up in Spain. After various intrigues and plots, Ferdinand VII. was at length proclaimed in Buenos Ayres by the address of Don Josef de Goyeneche. A rising of the people (August 1809) was suppressed by Liniers, who was shortly after deposed and sent into exile. Rapid were the convulsions which now shook this unhappy country; till, on May 26, 1810, the people rose, expelled the viceroy, and appointed a provisional junta of nine persons. In vain the provinces of Cordova, Paraguay, and Monte Video refused their co-operation; they were compelled to go along with the tide. In vain Liniers and General Nieto assembled armies; they were defeated, and beheaded. Shortly after the district of Potosi fell into the hands of the patriots, who deputed, in 1814, a special mission to Ferdinand, on his restoration to the Spanish throne, with conditions of submission. These, happily for them, were rejected. In the same year a small cloud passed over the hopes of the patriots by General Artigas, which was dispelled by the capture of Monte Video, the last stronghold of the Spaniards. After two years of carnage and confusion, in 1816, a sovereign congress met at Tucuman, and on October 6, the same year, the act of independence was ratified, D. Juan Martin Pueyrsedon being dictator. Monte Video was taken by the Portuguese under the Baron de Leguna, who had seized on the most valuable part of Banda Oriental.

Petty dissensions and intrigues, incident to the effects of rising independence, interrupted the progress of success necessary for the consolidation of a new state. D. Jose de San Martin cut a distinguished figure in this part of the history, having twice defeated the independents at Entre Rios, in 1811; but his efforts failed, and the independence of the Provinces of Rio de la Plata was shortly after sealed. Artigas, driven by the Portuguese across the Paraguay, was apprehended by the dictator Francia, and in 1819, Pueyrsedon, the dictator, fled to Monte Video, and thus dissolved the confused mass of the union of conflicting and discordant provinces. After a variety of events and political changes, D. Martin Rodriguez was established governor, October 6, 1820; and in the following year the independence of Buenos Ayres was recognised by the Portuguese government. A general congress was convened at Cordova the same year, and on the 15th of December they decided the number of deputies to be sent by each province.

In 1827 a war broke out between the republic and Brazil, respecting the possession of Uruguay (Banda Oriental) established as an independent

state in 1828; and more recently La Plata has been involved in disputes with both Bolivia, and France. These wars have contributed to retard the march of her prosperity; but with all her accumulated difficulties, La Plata has every appearance of soon becoming a prosperous country.

COLOMBIA.

This is a new state, formed at the close of the year 1819, from the states of Grenada, and Venezuela or Caraccas. It will therefore be necessary to detail the distinct history of these two original states.

Grenada, or as it is called, New Grenada, was discovered by Columbus in his fourth voyage, and taken possession of for the Spanish government. He was followed by others, and especially by Amerigo Vespucci, who was the first who made Europe acquainted with a published account of this part of the New World. The first regular colonists were Ojeda, and Nica Essa, in 1508; the former founded the district called New Andalusia, but with no great success; the latter, Golden Castile, and he also perished. These two districts were united (1514) in one, called Terra Firma, under Avila, who successfully extended the discoveries, and founded the town of Panama. Other additions were subsequently made, and the kingdom of New Grenada was established under a captain-general, in 1547. As it had been established, so did it continue for more than one hundred and fifty years, when in 1718 it became a vice-royalty, which form of government lasted but for six years, when it was supplanted by the original one, which was again superseded in 1740, by the incubus of the vice-royalty. Thus did it continue, till the weakness of the mother country, from the invasion of the French, afforded an opportunity to raise the standard of independence. Many and various have been the events attendant upon the struggle for mastery; but a severe blow was inflicted by their old masters in 1810, who, under Morillo, defeated the colonists with tremendous loss. Three years of renewed subjection followed, when the success of the illustrious Bolivar caused the union of Grenada with Venezuela.

Venezuela.—This district was discovered somewhat earlier than Grenada, by Columbus, in 1498. After several fruitless attempts to colonize it, the Spanish government disposed of the partially subdued natives to the Weltsers, a German company of merchants. Their management led to a change in 1550, when Venezuela, like Greneda three years before, became a supreme government under a captain-general. From that period to 1806, Venezuela was a torpid vassal under the Spanish crown, when a futile attempt for independence was made under General Mirando, a native. Simultaneous with Grenada, Venezuela rallied for liberty, when the mother country was prostrate before the ascendancy of France, in 1810. In the following year a formal proclamation of independence was made, July 6, and success seemed to attend the cause. Then came the dreadful earthquake. Superstition re-nerved the arm of freedom, and the royalist general, Monteverde, discomfited Mirando, and again overran the province. In 1813 Bolivar called independence again into action, and success attended him for three years, when another defeat was sustained, which was followed by another victory. Reverses again recurring, compelled the congress to appoint Bolivar dictator; and in 1819 the union of Venezuela with Grenada was effected under the name of Colombia.

Colombia may therefore date its history as a nation from this union, which was agreed upon December 17, 1819; and the installation of the united congress took place May 6, 1821; which was followed in June 24, by a victory obtained by the president Bolivar over the Spaniards, at the

celebrated battle of Carabobo, in which the royalist army lost above six thousand men, besides their artillery and baggage.

BOLIVIA.

The history of this recently formed state, known before as Upper Peru, partakes of the nature of an episode in the life of the great Bolivar, in whose honour its present name was given, and to whose wise councils it is so much indebted. Previously to the battle of Ayachuco, in 1824, it formed a part of the Spanish viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres; but General Sucre, at the head of the republicans, having then defeated the royalist troops, the independence of the country was effected; and in the following year, at the request of the people, Bolivar drew up a constitution for its governance.

The reader will find in the life of Bolivar the following passage, which is so applicable that we cannot, perhaps, do better than transcribe it. "His renown was now at its height, and every act of his government showed how zealously alive he was to the improvement of the national institutions and the moral elevation of the people over whom he ruled. In 1823 he went to the assistance of the Peruvians, and having succeeded in settling their internal divisions, and establishing their independence, he was proclaimed liberator of Peru, and invested with supreme authority. In 1825 he visited Upper Peru, which detached itself from the goverment of Buenos Ayres, and was formed into a new republic, named Bolivia, in honour of the liberator; but domestic factions sprung up, the purity of his motives were called in question, and he was charged with aiming at a perpetual dictatorship; he accordingly declared his intention to resign his power so soon as his numerous enemies were overcome, and to repel the imputations of ambition cast upon him, by retiring to seclusion upon his patrimonial estates. The vice-president, Santander, urged him, in reply, to resume his station as constitutional president; and though he was beset by the jealousy and distrust of rival factions, he continued to exercise the chief authority in Colombia till May, 1830, when, dissatisfied with the aspect of internal affairs, he resigned the presidency, and expressed his determination to leave the country. The people ere long became sensible of their injustice to his merit, and were soliciting him to resume the government, when his death, which happened in December, 1830, prevented the accomplishment of their wishes." The government of Bolivia is in the hands of a president, to which office General Santa Cruz was elected in 1829.

GUIANA.

This is a British possession, comprising the several districts of Berbice, Essequibo, Demerara, and Surinam. It is asserted by some that Columbus saw this coast in 1458, and by others that it was discovered by Vasco Nunez, in 1504. It became, however, known to Europe in 1595, when Raleigh sailed up the Orinoco in his chimerical search of El Dorado, a city supposed to be paved with gold. The coast of Guiana then became the resort of buccaneers; and in 1634, a mixed company of these freebooters, English and French, formed the settlements of Surinam for the cultivation of tobacco. They were, after twenty years of great hardship and difficulty, taken under the protection of the British, who appointed Lord Willoughby, of Parham, governor, 1662. The Dutch captured the

settlement in 1667, and the possession of it was confirmed by the treaty of Westminster, England receiving the colony of New-York in exchange. In 1773, the Dutch settlements on the Essequibo, which had been captured by the British in the American war, were restored to the states-general. In 1796, both Berbice and Demerara fell to the English, as also Surinam, in 1799; but again reverted to Holland, at the peace of Amiens, in 1802; fell to the English arms in 1813, and were confirmed by the treaty of Paris, 1814, to Great Britain.

AMAZONIA.

A COUNTRY of South America, so called from a martial and powerful state, in which a body of women, it is said, with arms in their hands, opposed Francisco Orellana in his passage down the river Maragnon. It was first discovered by him, A. D. 1541; when, with fifty soldiers, he was wafted in a vessel down the stream of a smaller river into the channel of the Maragnon, which he also called Amazon.

The origin of the name Amazon is folded in some mystery. It is applied exclusively to females of strong and martial habits, and was first used in reference to a race of them who, whether actually or fabulously is a matter of dispute, founded an empire in Asia Minor, upon the river Thermodoon, along the coast of the Black Sea, as far as the Caspian. They are mentioned by the most ancient Greek writers, as well as by others of a late date; and various are accounts given both of their origin and history.

THE WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

THE West Indies consist of a number of islands in the central part of America, extending from the tropic of Cancer southward, to the coast of Terra Firma and Mexico; the principal of which are Cuba, Hayti or St. Domingo, Jamaica, Porto Rico, Trinidad, St. Christopher, (commonly called St. Kitt's,) Antigua, Guadaloupe, Martinique, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago; for the most part discovered by Columbus, near the close of the fifteenth century. The islands are in possession of various powers.

CUBA.

CUBA, the largest and most westerly island in the West Indies, was discovered by Columbus, 1492; and was first called Juana, in honour of prince John, son of Ferdinand and Isabella; afterward Fernandina; then Santiago and Ave Maria, in deference to the patron saint of Spain and the Virgin. The name of Cuba is that which it was called by the natives at the time of its discovery. It is about eight hundred miles in length, and about one hundred and twenty-five in breadth. The Spaniards made no settlement upon it till 1151, when Diego de Velasquez arrived with four ships, and landed on the eastern point. This district was under the government of a cacique, named Hatney, a native of St. Domingo, who had retired hither to avoid the slavery to which his countrymen were con-

demned. Those who could escape the tyranny of the Spaniards had followed him in his retreat.

The Spaniards soon overcame the Indians. Hatney was taken in the woods, and condemned to be burned. When he was fastened to the stake, and waited only for the kindling of the fire, a priest advanced towards him, and proposed the ceremony of baptism as a means of entering the Christian paradise. "Are there," said the cacique, "any Spaniards in that happy place?" "Yes," replied the priest. "I will not," replied Hatney, "go to a place where I should be in danger of meeting one of them. Talk to me no more of your religion, but leave me to die."

Velasquez found no more enemies. All the caciques hastened to do him homage. After the mines had been opened, and it was found that they did not answer, the inhabitants of Cuba, having become useless, were exterminated. A small part only of this island is cleared; there are only some traces of cultivation at St. Jago, and at Matanzas; the fine plantations are all confined to the beautiful plains of the Havana.

Havana, the capital of Cuba, is a fine city, and the harbour one of the safest in the world. The English took it in the year 1762, but it was restored at the peace of 1763, since which time prodigious pains have been taken to render this key to all the Spanish American colonies impregnable.

HAYTI, OR ST. DOMINGO.

This island was discovered by Columbus in 1492, and is, next to Cuba, the largest of the West India islands. It is upwards of four hundred miles in length, from east to west, and averages more than one hundred in breadth. Having taken possession of it in the name of Spain, Columbus founded the town of La Isabella on the north coast, and established in it, under his brother Diego, the first settlement of the Spaniards in the New World. It was in high estimation for the quantity of gold it supplied; but this wealth diminished with the inhabitants of the country, whom they compelled to perpetual labour in the mines; and it was entirely lost when those wretched victims were no more. The cruelties of the Spaniards almost exceed belief. It is computed, that considerably more than a million of natives (the number at the time of its discovery) perished in the space of fifty years, by the hands or through the means of the conquerors.

The gold mines have failed for want of hands to dig them. The Spaniards thought of procuring slaves from Africa, to re-open them, and numbers were imported: but the mines on the continent having been begun to be worked with good effect, those of St. Domingo were no longer of importance. The settlers then turned their thoughts to agriculture, which was cultivated with success. Sugar, tobacco, cocoa, cassia, ginger and cotton, were among their productions at the close of the sixteenth century. The immense fortunes raised in Mexico, and other parts, induced the inhabitants of St. Domingo to despise their settlements, and they quitted the island in numbers in search of those regions of wealth. This conduct ruined St. Domingo. It had no intercourse with the mother country, but by a single ship, of no great burden, received from thence every third year; and the whole colony, in 1717, consisted of only eighteen thousand four hundred and ten, including Spaniards, Mestees, Mulattoes and Negroes.

The Spaniards retained possession of the whole istaland till 1665, when the French obtained a footing on its western coast, and laid the foundation of that colony which afterwards became so flourishing. The French settlers increased very fast; and sugar works were erected in great num-

bers; the planters became rich, and the negroes became numerous, until the fatal measure of giving liberty to the slaves was adopted, without preparatory means, by the French national convention. At that period the negroes in the French part of St. Domingo were estimated at about five hundred thousand; and while the revolutionary terrorists in France were hourly exhibiting scenes of barbarity, and recommending their actions as worthy of imitation by all other nations, the inhabitants of St. Domingo were precisely in that unsettled situation which seemed to favour the commission of similar atrocities, under the pretext of avenging past injuries and redressing present grievances. In October, 1790, James Oge, a free mulatto who had been in Paris, and who is described as an enthusiast for liberty, but otherwise humane, returned from France, and put himself at the head of the insurgent people of colour; but being defeated, in March, 1791, was betrayed by the Spaniards, to whom he had fled for refuge, and, with Mark Chavane, his lieutenant, broke alive on the wheel.

At this time eight thousand troops arrived from France; and Maudit, the new governor, was murdered by his own soldiers, with circumstances of horrid barbarity. By a decree of the national assembly of the 15th of May, 1791, people of colour were declared eligible to seats in the colonial assembly. And on the 11th of September, a concordat, or truce, was signed between the whites and mulattoes. But the operation of this truce was destroyed by an absurd decree of the national assembly repealing the decree of the 15th of May. Open war in all its horrors was now renewed. It was no longer a contest for victory, but a diabolical emulation to outvie each other in barbarous atrocities. On the 23rd of August, 1791, Cape François was burnt; and it was computed that in the space of two months, upwards of two thousand persons perished by these horrible massacres, while not fewer than ten thousand of the mulattoes and negroes died by famine and the sword, besides numbers that suffered by the executioner. Meantime three commissioners arrived from France, accompanied by six thousand of the national guards; and citizen Galbaud was appointed governor. Their attempts, however, to stop these enormities, proved fruitless, though they proclaimed the total abolition of slavery, and a general indemnity.

In October, 1793, a body of British under Colonel Whitelock, landed and took possession of Tiburon, Treves, Jérémie, Leogane, Cape Nicholas Mole, and upwards of ninety miles of the eastern coast, with little opposition. It was, however, a disastrous acquisition to the English, for in less than six months after their arrival, not less than six thousand, of whom one hundred and fifty were officers, fell victims to disease. Leogane was soon after re-taken by the negroes, who now amounted to above one hundred thousand, under their general Touissant L'Ouverture: and Tiburon was taken by the French under General Rigaud. To remedy these disasters another expedition was undertaken by the British, but was attended with vast expense and the loss of many brave troops. Colonels Brisbane and Markham were killed; and at length, in 1798, the British having surrendered Port au Prince and Cape Nicholas Mole to General Hedonville, the island was totally abandoned by them. At this time the name of Port au Prince was changed to Port Republicain; and the Spanish part of the island was taken possession of by L'Ouverture; a man of superior talents and character, whose unremitting exertions were directed to the laudable object of healing the wounds and improving the condition of every class in the island. The beneficial effects of such an administration were soon visible. The wasted colony began to revive; the plantations were again brought into a fertile state; the ports were opened to foreign vessels; and, notwithstanding the ravages of a ten years' war, the commerce of St. Do-

mingo was rapidly recovering; while the population also increased with astonishing rapidity.

In 1798, when the British forces evacuated the island, the military establishment of St. Domingo did not exceed forty thousand; but in two years it was more than double that number. Touissant was regarded as an extraordinary being by his soldiers, and no European army was ever subject to a more rigorous discipline. Every officer commanded, pistol in hand; and had the power of life and death over the subalterns. Sixty thousand men were frequently reviewed and exercised together; on which occasions two thousand officers were seen in the field, carrying arms, from the general to the ensign, yet with the utmost attention to rank, and without the smallest symptom of insubordination. In these reviews, says M. de la Croix, Touissant appeared like an inspired person, and became the fetiche or idol of the blacks who listened to him. In order to make himself better understood, he frequently addressed them in parables, and often made use of the following:—In a glass vessel full of grains of black maize, he would mix a few grains of white maize, and say to those who surrounded him, "you are the black maize; the whites, who are desirous of enslaving you are the white maize." He would then shake the vessel, and presenting it to their fascinated eyes, exclaim, "see the white here and there!" in other words, "see how far the whites are apart in comparison to ourselves." The gleam of prosperity, however, which resulted from his wise administration, was but of short continuance.

The independence of St. Domingo was proclaimed on the 1st of July, 1801; and while the inhabitants were indulging the hope of future happiness, a storm was gathering, which burst upon them with accumulated fury. Scarcely was the peace of Amiens concluded, when a formidable armament of twenty-six ships of war was equipped by order of the first consul, with the determination of reducing the revolted colony of St. Domingo. On board this fleet were embarked twenty-five thousand chosen troops, amply furnished with all the apparatus of military slaughter; and the chief command was confided to General Le Clerc, the brother-in-law of Bonaparte. Before proceeding to hostilities, however, recourse was had to various perfidious acts. Attempts were made to sow disunion among the free people of St. Domingo. Proclamations and letters, expressed in all the delusive jargon of the republic, were widely circulated. The chiefs of both colours then in France, and the two sons of Touissant himself, who had sent them thither for instruction, were pressed into the service of the expedition.

The French forces arrived in January, 1801; yet so little did Touissant expect to have any enemy to combat, that he was at the time making a tour round the eastern part of the island, and had given no order for resistance in case of attack. After the French troops had disembarked, and previously to commencing operations in the interior of the country, Le Clerc thought proper to try what effect the sight of his two sons, and a specious letter from Bonaparte, would have upon Touissant. Coisnon, their tutor, who had accompanied them from France, and was one of the chief confidential agents in this expedition, was accordingly deputed on this errand, with instructions to press Touissant's instant return to the Cape, and to bring back the children in case he should not succeed. On arriving at Touissant's country residence, and learning that its owner would not return from his excursion until the next day, the wily Frenchman availed himself of this delay to work upon the feelings of their mother, whose tears, and the solicitations of the children, when their father returned, for a while shook his resolutions. But being at length confirmed in his suspicions of the snare that was laid for him, by the conduct and language of Coisnon, Touissant suddenly composed his agitated countenance; and, gently disengaging himself from the embraces of his

wife and children, he took their preceptor into another apartment, and gave him this dignified decision:—"Take back my children; since it must be so, I will be faithful to my brethren and my God." Unwilling to prolong this painful scene, Touissant mounted his horse, and rode to the camp; and although a correspondence was afterwards opened between him and Le Clerc, it failed to produce his submission.

Hostilities now commenced. After several obstinate conflicts in the open field, and the burning of several towns, the blacks found themselves overpowered, and were compelled to retire into the inaccessible fortresses of the interior, whence they carried on, under their brave chieftain, Touissant, a desultory, but destructive warfare against detached parties of their enemies. At length, however, the negroes and cultivators were either subdued by the terror of the French army, or cajoled by the deceitful promises of the French general, who had published in his own name, and in that of the first consul, solemn declarations that the freedom of all the inhabitants of St Domingo, of all colours, should be preserved inviolate. But no sooner did Le Clerc find that his plans succeeded than he threw aside the mask, and issued an order restoring to the proprietors, or their attorneys, all their ancient authority over the negroes upon their estates. This order at once opened the eyes of the negro population; Touissant and Christophe united their forces; and such was the fierce and active nature of their attacks, that Le Clerc was obliged to abandon most of his former conquests, and seek refuge in the town of Cape François; where he again issued a proclamation, couched in such specious terms that the blacks and their leaders accepted the conditions of his proffered amnesty. This master-piece of deception having thus succeeded, and the French now having the dominion of the island, began to put in execution their meditated system of slavery and destruction; and, as a preliminary step towards this object, Le Clerc caused Touissant to be privately seized in the night, together with his family, and, putting him on board a fast-sailing frigate, he was conveyed to France, as a prisoner, (May, 1802). There, under a charge of exciting the negroes to rebel, he was committed to close custody, and was no more heard of by his sorrowing countrymen, till his death was announced in the following year as having taken place in the fortress of Joux.

Aroused by the treachery of Le Clerc, the black chieftains, Dessalines, Christophe, and Clervaux, again raised their standards, and were soon found at the head of considerable bodies of troops, ready to renew the struggle for liberty, and determined to succeed or perish in the attempt. Many and desperate were the contests which ensued; Le Clerc died, and was succeeded in the command of the French army by Rochambaud; but the losses they sustained by disease as well as by this harrassing warfare rendered any escape from Hayti preferable to a continuance there; and, as war had then recommenced between Great Britain and France, the French gladly surrendered themselves prisoners of war to a British squadron, and were conveyed to England. The independence of Hayti, which had been first proclaimed in 1800, was thus consolidated, and Dessalines erected the west or French part of the island into an empire, of which he became emperor, with the title of Jacques I. (January 1, 1804). But his reign was of short duration; the cruelties he perpetrated caused a conspiracy to be formed against him; and, two years after his coronation, he was surrounded by the conspirators at his head-quarters, and, struggling to escape, received his death-blow.

The assassination of Dessalines caused another division of the island, and another civil war. In the north, Christophe assumed the government, with the modest designation of chief of the government of Hayti; while Pétion, a mulatto, asserted his claim to sovereign power. For several years these rival chieftains carried on a sanguinary contest, with various

success, until the year 1810, when hostilities were suspended; and, though no formal treaty was concluded, the country enjoyed the blessings of peace. Christophe was crowned king of Hayti in March, 1811, by the title of Henry I.; and Pétion, as president of the republic of Hayti, governed the southern part until 1818, when he died, and was succeeded by General Boyer, whom he was allowed to nominate his successor. Both governments evinced a praiseworthy solicitude for the encouragement of agriculture, as the basis of their national prosperity; and both were persevering in their endeavours to promote the intellectual instruction of the rising generation. Christophe, in imitation of other monarchs, created various orders of nobility, together with numerous officers of state, &c. His dynasty, however, was like his predecessor's, short-lived. In 1820, a successful conspiracy was formed against him; and, finding himself completely surrounded by an overwhelming force, he committed suicide. Boyer now took possession of his dominions; and, the Spanish portion of the island having, in 1821, voluntarily placed itself under his government, he became master of the whole of Hayti.

Though nominally republican, the government of Hayti is in reality an elective military monarchy; vested ostensibly in a president, senate, and chamber of representatives; but the whole efficient authority is wielded by the chief officer. The president is charged with all the executive duties; commands the army and navy; makes war, peace, and treaties, subject to the sanction of the senate; appoints all public functionaries, &c. In 1825, Boyer concluded a treaty with France, by the provisions of which the independence of Hayti was fully recognized, and its ports thrown open to all nations, but with certain exclusive advantages to the French. The Haytians also agreed to pay one hundred and fifty millions of francs to France, in five annual payments, as an indemnity for the losses of the colonists during the revolution. The first instalment of thirty millions was paid in 1836; but it being evident that the annual exaction was beyond the ability of Hayti to repeat, it was agreed, in 1838, to reduce the original sum to sixty millions of francs, to be paid in six instalments, by 1867.

PORTO-RICO.

Porto-Rico was discovered by Columbus in 1493; it is about one hundred miles in length, from east to west, and forty from north to south. The Spaniards neglected it till 1509, when thirst of gold brought them thither from St. Domingo, under Ponce de Leon, to make a conquest, which afterwards cost them dear. Ambition, revenge, and love of gold prompted the Spaniards to the most atrocious outrages. They found the inhabitants brave and fond of liberty; and as they looked up to the European visitants as a superior order of beings, to their authority they voluntarily submitted. It was not long, however, before they wished to shake off the intolerable yoke under which they groaned, and postponed the enterpise only till they could assure themselves that they were not immortal. A cacique, named Broyo, was entrusted with this commission; and chance soon favoured the design, by bringing to him Salzedo, a young Spaniard, who was travelling. Broyo received him with the greatest respect, and, at his departure, sent some Indians to attend him on his way, in quality of guides. When they came to the bank of the river, which they were to pass, one of them took him on his shoulders to carry him across; but no sooner had he got into the middle of the stream, than he threw the Spaniard into it, and, with the assistance of his companions, he kept him there till no signs of life remained. They then dragged him to the bank, but, as they were still in doubt whether he was dead or living,

they begged pardon many times for the accident that had happened. This farce lasted three days; till at length being convinced, by the putridity of the body, that it was possible for Spaniards to die, the Indians rose on all sides upon their oppressors, and massacred upwards of one hundred of them.

Ponce de Leon immediately assembled all the Castilians who had escaped, and fell upon the Indians, who, as historians relate, had the extreme folly to suppose that these Spaniards were the same that had been killed and were come to life again to fight them. Under this ridiculous and almost incredible persuasion, dreading to continue a war with men who revived after death, they submitted again to the yoke of a cruel foe; and being condemned to the mines, six hundred thousand are said to have fallen martyrs to the sword or the toils of slavery.

Under the old colonial system of Spain, in 1788, the population was little more than eighty thousand; whereas it amounted, in 1836, to three hundred and fifty-seven thousand, and it was supposed to contain near four hundred thousand, of whom an eighth are slaves. Previously to 1815, Porto-Rico being excluded from all direct intercouse with other countries excepting Spain, was but slowy progressive. At that period, however, a royal decree appeared, which exempted the trade between Spain and the Spanish colonies and Porto-Rico from all duties for fifteen years; and she was then also permitted to carry on a free trade, under reasonable duties, with other countries. These wise and liberal measures have wonderfully contributed to the prosperity of the island; and their coffee, sugar, and tobacco plantations are now in a thriving condition. In the latter part of the 17th century, Porto-Rico was taken possession of by the English; but they did not long retain it, owing to the prevalence of disease among the troops. The government, laws, and institutions are nearly similar to those established in the other transatlantic colonies of Spain.

BARBADOES.

This is the most easterly island of the West Indies. It is twenty-two miles in length, from north to south, and fifteen in breath, from east to west. The time of its discovery is not certain, nor by whom; but it is generally attributed to the Portuguese, on their way to Brazil. However, the English touched there in 1615, and, landing some men in 1625, made their first permanent settlement. In 1627, the earl of Pembroke obtained a grant of the island in trust for Sir William Courteen, unknown to the earl of Carlisle, who had before obtained a grant of all the Caribbee islands from James I. The first planters were gentlemen of Devonshire and Cornwall, principally of the parliamentary party.

The country bore not the least appearance of having ever been peopled; there was no kind of beast of pasture or of prey; no fruit, herb, or root, fit for the support of human life; but the soil was good, and soon began to submit to cultivation. Population increased through a variety of adventures, and the civil wars of England added prodigiously thereto; Barbadoes, in twenty-five years from its first settlement, containing upwards of fifty thousand whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Indian slaves. The former of these they bought, and the latter they seized upon without any pretence. In 1676, the population and trade were at their highest pitch; four hundred ships, averaging about one hundred and fifty tons each, were employed; since which the island has been much on the decline.

Barbadoes has been frequently visited by hurricanes, of which those of August 10, 1674, October 10, 1780, and August 11, 1831, have been the

most destructive in their effects; but the fury and violence of the last hurricane far exceeded that of either of the former; in it twenty-five hundred persons were killed, and the loss of property amounted to two millions and a half sterling. By the munificent aid of the British parliament, and the industry of the inhabitants, the planters have now recovered from these losses. The population, as in the adjoining islands, may properly be divided into four classes; creole or native whites; European whites; creoles of mixed blood; and native blacks. Barbadoes has all along remained in possession of the English. It is the residence of the bishop of Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands; and the clerical establishment is on a very respectable and effective scale.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S, OR ST. KITT'S.

This island, which belongs to Great Britain, was discovered in 1493, by Columbus, who gave it the name it bears. It was the mother country of all the English and French settlements in the West Indies. Both nations arrived there on the same day in 1625; they shared the island between them; signed a perpetual neutrality; and entered into a mutual engagement to assist each other against their common enemy, the Spaniards. War commenced between England and France in 1666, and St. Christopher's became a scene of carnage for nearly half a century, terminating only with the total expulsion of the French in 1702. This island is about fifteen miles long, by four broad. There is no harbour in the country, nor the appearance of one.

NEVIS.

This small island, now belonging to the British, was originally discovered by Columbus; and the English, under Sir Thomas Warner, settled on it in 1628. It is separated from St. Christopher's by a narrow channel; and is properly only one very high mountain, about seven miles over each way. It was ravaged by the French in 1706, and the next year almost destroyed by the most violent hurricane ever recorded.

ANTIGUA.

Antigua, a West Indian island, belonging to Great Btitain, is one of those denominated the Windward Islands. It was called by the natives Xaymaca, but Columbus gave it the name of Santa Maria de la Antigua. The island is about twenty-five miles long, by eighteen broad. Columbus discovered it in 1492, but it was found totally uninhabited by those few Frenchmen who fled thither in 1629, upon being driven from St. Christopher's by the Spaniards. The want of fresh water induced the fugitives to return as soon as they could. It appears that in 1640 there were about thirty English families settled in this island; and the number was not much increased when Charles II. granted the property to Lord Willoughby, of Parham. His lordship sent over a considerable number of inhabitants in 1666; but, from that time till 1680, it grew nothing but indigo and tobacco; when the island being restored again to the state, Colonel Codrington introduced the culture of sugar. The harbours of the island, particularly that called English Harbour, are the best belonging to the British government in these seas; and the whole is so much encom-

passed with rocks and shoals, that it is very dangerous for those unacquainted with its navigation to effect a landing. For this cause it has remained unmolested by the French in all the late wars.

MONTSERRAT.

THIS island was discovered by the Spaniards in 1493, who gave it the name of a mountain in Catalonia, which it resembled in shape. It is about twelve miles in length, and five in its broadest part. The English landed here in 1632, and soon after drove off all the natives. The progress of the colony was slow; and it acquired no kind of importance till the close of the seventeenth century, when the culture of sugar took place. It has no harbour, nor even a tolerable road; and masters of vessels are under the necessity of putting to sea when they see a storm approaching. It is in the possession of the English.

JAMAICA.

JAMAICA, the largest and most valuable of the British West India islands, was discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, in 1494. It is about one hundred and sixty-five miles in length, from east to west, and its average breadth about forty miles, bearing a resemblance to a long oval. In 1502, Columbus was driven upon the island by a storm, and having lost his ships, he implored the humanity of the natives, who gave him all the assistance that natural pity suggests. They soon, however, grew tired of supporting strangers, and insensibly withdrew from their neighbourhood. The Spaniards, who had already treated the Indians ungenerously, now took up arms against one of their chiefs, whom they accused of severity toward them. Columbus, forced to yield to the threats of his people, in order to extricate himself from so perilous a situation, availed himself of one of those natural phenomena, in which a man of genius may sometimes find a resource. From the knowledge he had acquired of astronomy, he knew that an eclipse of the moon was fast approaching. He took advantage of this circumstance, and summoned all the caciques in the neighbourhood to come and hear something that concerned them, and was essential to their preservation. He then stood up in the midst of them, and having upbraided them with their cruelty, in suffering him and his distressed companions almost to perish, he thus emphatically addressed them: "To punish you for this, the God whom I worship is going to strike you with his most terrible judgments. This very evening you will see the moon turn red, then grow dark, and withhold its light from you. This will be only a prelude to your calamities, if you obstinately persist in refusing to give us food." He had scarcely done speaking, when his prophecies were fulfilled. The Indians were terrified beyond measure; they begged for mercy, and promised to do anything that he should desire. He then told them, that Heaven, moved with their repentance, was appeased, and that nature was going to resume her natural course. From that moment provisions weres ent from all quarters; and the Spaniards were never in want of anything during the time they remained there.

It was Don Diego Columbus, son of the discoverer, that first fixed the Spaniards in Jamaica. In 1509, he sent thither seventy robbers from St. Domingo, under the command of John de Esquimel; and others soon followed. These wretches went over apparently for no other purpose but to shed human blood; in fact, they never appear to have sheathed their swords while there was an inhabitant left. The murderers raised several settlements upon the ashes of the natives; but that of St. Jago de la Vega, was the only one that could support itself. The inhabitants of that

town contented themselves with living upon the produce of some few plantations, and the overplus they sold to the ships that passed by their coasts. The whole population of the colony, centered in the little spot that fed this race of destroyers, consisted of about fifteen hundred whites, and as many slaves, when the English came and attacked the town, took it, and settled there, in 1655. The English brought the fatal sources of discord along with them. At first the new colony was only inhabited by three thousand of that fanatical army who had fought and conquered under the standards of the republican party. These were soon followed by a multitude of royalists. The divisions which had prevailed for so long a time, and with so much violence, between the two parties in Europe, followed them beyond the seas. One party triumphed in the protection of Cromwell; the other trusted to the governor of the island, who was, in secret, a royalist. The name of this governor was Dudley; and by his disinterested behaviour he enforced his authority. When Charles II. was restored to the crown, a form of civil government was established at Jamaica, modelled like those of the other islands, upon that of the mother country. The governor represented the king; the council, the peers; and three deputies from each town, with two from every parish, constituted the commons. In 1682, the code of laws was drawn up which has so long existed.

Jamaica soon after became the grand depôt of the buccaneers, a set of pirates who plundered the seas, and ravaged the coasts of America. Here the spoils of Mexico and Peru met with a ready reception; and here "extravagance and debauchery held their court," till this destructive race became extinct, or annihilated, in consequence of the frequency of the murders they committed. The illicit trade carried on between Jamaica and the Spanish colonies, had, in 1739, according to the best calculations, brought into the former upwards of £65,000,000 sterling. The court of Madrid thought to put a stop to it, by prohibiting the admission of foreign ships into the Spanish harbours, on any pretence whatever. But the people of Jamaica supported themselves in this trade under the protection of the English men-of-war, by allowing the captain five per cent. upon every article of which he authorized the smuggling. After the establishing of register ships by Spain, this trade gradually diminished; and sometime previous to the year 1766, it was reduced to about £56,000 per annum. The British ministry at that time wishing to restore or recover the profit of it, thought that the best expedient to repair the losses of Jamaica was to make it a free port. This was no sooner done than the Spanish American ships flocked thither from all parts, to exchange their gold and silver, and other commodities, for the manufactures of England.

St. Jago, or Spanish Town, is the capital, but Kingston by far exceeds it in size and opulence. The town of Port Royal stood on a point of land running far out into the sea, and ships of seven hundred tons could come up close to the wharfs. When the earthquake happened on the 7th of June, 1692, this town contained two thousand houses, all of which were destroyed, and vast numbers of persons perished. The earthquake was followed by an epidemic disease, which carried off three thousand more. Port Royal was soon rebuilt; but in January, 1703, it experienced another great calamity, a fire nearly reducing it to ashes. Many people now removed to Kingston. It was, however, built a third time, and was rising toward its former grandeur, when it was overwhelmed by the sea, on the 28th of August, 1722. Kingston was built in 1692, from a plan of Colonel Lilly's, after the earthquake which destroyed Port Royal. It is a beautiful city, laid out in squares, with streets wide and regular, crossed by others at right angles. The harbour is spacious, and capable of admitting one hundred ships, or more, in safety.

MARTINIQUE.

Martinique, one of the discoveries of Columbus, and the principal of the French Caribbee islands, is about forty miles in length, and ten in average breadth. It was first settled by M. Desnambouc, a Frenchman, in the year 1635, with only one hundred men from St. Christopher's. He chose rather to have it peopled from thence than from Europe; as he foresaw that men tired from the fatigue of a long voyage would be likely to perish, after their arrival, either from the climate, or the hardships incident to most emigrations. They completed their first settlement without any difficulty. The natives, intimidated by fire-arms, or seduced by promises, gave up to the French the western and the southern parts of the island, and retired to the other. This tranquillity was of short duration. The Caribs, when they saw those enterprising strangers daily increasing, were resolved to extirpate them: they therefore called in the natives of the neighbouring isles to their assistance, and suddenly attacked a little fort that had been newly erected. They were, however, repulsed, leaving upwards of seven hundred of their best warriors dead upon the spot. After this check, they disappeared for a long time; and when they did appear, it was with presents in their hands for their conquerors.

The Indians, whose manner of life requires a vast extent of land, finding themselves daily more straitened, waylaid the French who frequented the woods, and destroyed them. Twenty men had been killed, before any one was able to account for their disappearance. No sooner was it discovered, than the aggressors were pursued, their houses burnt, their wives and children massacred; and those few that escaped the carnage, fled from Martinique, and never appeared there any more.

The French, by this retreat, became sole masters of the island. They were divided into two classes; the first consisted of such as had paid their passage to the island, and those were called inhabitants. The government distributed lands to them, which became their absolute property upon paying a yearly tribute. These had under their command a number of disorderly people, sent from Europe, at their expense, whom they called *engagés*, or bondsmen. This engagement was a kind of slavery for three years, and when it expired they became free. The first cultivation was confined to tobacco, cotton, annato, and indigo. That of sugar was introduced in 1650. Benjamin Da Costa, ten years after, planted cocoa. In 1718, all the cocoa-trees were destroyed by the season, and the coffee-tree immediately took its place.

Early in the eighteenth century, Martinique became the mart for all the windward French settlements; and Port Royal became the magazine for all matters of exchange between the colonies and the mother country. The prosperity of this island was very great until the war of 1744, when a stop was put, in a great measure, to the contraband trade with the Spanish colonies, by the introduction of registered ships.

Martinique was taken by the English in the beginning of the year 1762, and returned to France in July, 1763. It was again taken by the English in 1809, but restored to France by the peace of Amiens. The empress Josephine, and her first husband, the viscount Beauharnois, were natives of this island.

GUADALOUPE.

Guadaloupe, a valuable island colony belonging to France, was one of the discoveries of Columbus. It is of an irregular form, about twenty-five miles long and thirteen broad. It is divided into two unequal parts by a

small arm of the sea, nearly six miles long, and varying from one to three hundred feet in breadth. This canal, known by the name of the *Riviere-salee*, or Salt River, is navigable for vessels of fifty tons burthen.

The part of the island which gives its name to the whole colony is, towards the centre, full of craggy rocks. Among these rocks is a mountain, called *La Soufrière*, or, the Brimstone Mountain, which rises to an immense height, and exhales, through various openings, a thick and black smoke, intermixed with sparks that are visible by night. From these hills flow numberless streams, which fertilize the plains below. Such is that part of the island properly called Guadaloupe, or Basse-terre. That part which is commonly called Grande-terre, has been less favoured by nature.

In 1635 the first settlement was made on this island, by two gentlemen from Dieppe, named Loline and Duplesis, with about five hundred followers. Through imprudence, all their provisions were exhausted in two months; famine stared them in the face, when they resolved to plunder the natives. This, however, did not avert the dreadful alternative. How far the accounts of their horrible sufferings are to be credited we know not, but it is asserted that the colonists were reduced to graze in the field, and to dig up dead bodies for their subsistence. Many who had been slaves in Algiers deplored the fate that had broken their fetters; and all of them cursed their existence. It was in this manner that they atoned for their crime of invasion, till the government of Aubert brought about a peace with the natives, A. D. 1640. The few inhabitants that escaped the calamities they had brought upon themselves, were soon joined by some discontented colonists from St. Christopher's, and by Europeans fond of novelty. But still the prosperity of Guadaloupe was impeded by obstacles arising from its situation. Martinique engrossed every species of traffic, from its convenient harbours and roads. It was in consequence of this preference, that the population of Guadaloupe, in 1700, amounted only to about four thousand whites, and seven thousand slaves, many of whom were Caribs; while the produce of the island was proportionably small. Its future progress was, however, as rapid as the first attempts had been slow.

At the end of 1755, the colony contained near ten thousand whites, and between forty and fifty thousand slaves; and such was the state of Guadaloupe when conquered by the English, in 1759, after a siege of three months, in which time the island suffered so much as to be nearly ruined. The conquerors, however, delivered the inhabitants from their fears; they overstocked the market, and thereby reduced the price of all European commodities. The colonists bought them at a low price, and in consequence of this plenty, obtained long delays for payment. The colony was restored to France by the peace of Paris, in 1763. During the French republican war, Guadaloupe was taken by the English, and retaken by the French, in whose hands it now remains

ST. LUCIA.

St. Lucia was discovered by Columbus, and is about thirty miles in length, by twelve in breadth. The English took possession of it in the beginning of the year 1639, without opposition. They lived there peaceably about a year and a half, when they were massacred by the natives.

In 1650, about forty French arrived there under Rousselan, who married one of the natives, and was beloved by them. He died four years after. Three of his successors were murdered by the discontented Caribs; and the colony was declining, when it was taken by the English in 1664, who

evacuated it in 1666. They had scarce left it, when the French appeared again on the island. Twenty years after, the English drove out the French. The English again quitted it; and it at length remained wholly without culture.

In 1718, Marshal d'Estrees obtained a grant of St. Lucia, and sent over a commandant, troops, and inhabitants. This gave umbrage to the court of London, which had a prior claim; therefore, the French ministry ordered that things should be put into the same state as they were before the grant. In 1722, the duke of Montague had a grant of St. Lucia from the British ministry. This gave uneasiness to France, and it was at length agreed, in 1736, that neither nation should occupy it, but that both should "wood and water" there. However, the peace of 1763, gave to France this long-contested territory. During the American war, 1778, it was taken by the English. It was afterwards given up to France; then again captured by the English in 1803, with whom it now remains, having been so definitely assigned by the treaty of Paris.

ST. VINCENT.

This island was discovered by the same enterprising navigator, and nearly at the same time, as the other islands in its neighbourhood. It is about sixteen miles long, and eight broad. For some time after its discovery, it was the general rendezvous of the red Caribs, the original possessors of the western archipelago. In 1660, when the English and French agreed that Dominica and St. Vincent should be left to the Caribs as their property, some of these natives, who till then had been dispersed, retired into the former; but the greater part into the latter. This population was soon after increased by a race of Africans, whose origin was never positively ascertained. It is supposed that they were slaves intended for the Spanish markets, and wrecked upon the coast. But by whatever chance these strangers were brought into the island, is now of no importance. The natives treated them with kindness, and mingled with them in marriage; from whence sprung the race called black Caribs.

In 1719, many inhabitants of Martinique removed to St. Vincent. The first who came there settled peaceably, not only with the consent, but by the assistance of the red Caribs. This success induced others to follow their example; but these, whether from jealousy, or some other motive, taught these Caribs a fatal secret; it was, that they could sell their lands. This knowledge induced them to measure, and fix boundaries; and from that instant peace was banished from the island.

The black Caribs no sooner knew the price which the Europeans set upon the lands they inhabited, than they claimed a share with the red Caribs, and also a share in all future sales. Provoked at being denied a part of these profits, they formed themselves into a separate tribe, swore never more to associate with the red Caribs, chose a chief of their own, and declared war. In this war they were successful, made themselves masters of all the leeward coast, and required of the Europeans that they should again buy the lands they had already purchased. A Frenchman attempted to show the deed of his purchase of the same lands which he had bought of a red Carib; "I know not," said the black Carib, "what thy paper says; but read what is written on my arrow. There you may see, in characters which do not lie, that if you do not give me what I demand, I will go and burn your house this night." Time, which brings on a change of measures with a change of interests, put an end to these disturbances. The French became, in their turn, the strongest. In less than twenty years the population amounted to eight hundred whites and three

thousand blacks. In this situation was the island when it fell into the hands of the English, to whom it was secured by the peace of 1763. In 1779 it was re-captured by the French; but it reverted to Great Britain in 1783.

The English had no sooner got possession, than they issued an order to deprive the cultivators of the lands of their property, unless redeemed. The settlers remonstrated against a proceeding so unjust, but were disregarded; and the lands were ordered, by the English ministry, to be sold indiscriminately. This severity made them disperse. Some went to St. Martin, Margalante, Guadaloupe, and Martinique; but the greater part to St. Lucia. The Caribs still occupied the windward side of the island, which contained fine plains; but having refused to evacuate them when ordered so to do by the English, the latter took to arms to compel them. These unfortunate people defended themselves with extraordinary courage during several years, but were at length obliged to submit. The greater part had been exterminated during the war, and the remainder either fled, or were sent off the island.

DOMINICA.

Dominica, discovered by Columbus, in 1493, is about thirty miles long, and sixteen broad. This island was for many years afterward inhabited only by its natives. In 1732, nine hundred and thirty-eight Caribs were found there, dispersed in thirty-two carbets, or huts; and three hundred and forty-nine French lived in a district by the sea-side. At the peace of 1763, when it became an English colony, it was found to contain six hundred whites, and two thousand blacks. The island was captured by the French in 1778, but restored at the peace of 1783. The great advantage of this island to the English is its situation. It is nearly equi-distant from Guadaloupe and Martinique, and at a small distance from either; and its safe and commodious roads and bays enable their privateers and squadrons to intercept, without risk, the navigation of France in her colonies

GRENADA.

One of the West India islands, belonging to Great Britain, is about thirty miles long, and twelve broad. The French formed a project for settling there as early as the year 1638, yet they never carried it into execution till 1651. At their arrival they gave a few hatchets, some knives, and a barrel of brandy, to the chief of the natives they found there; and imagining they had purchased the island with these trifles, assumed the sovereignty, and soon acted as tyrants. The Caribs, unable to contend with them by open force, took the usual method which weakness inspires to repel oppression: they murdered all whom they found alone and defenceless. The troops that were sent to support the infant colony, destroyed all the natives they found. The remainder of these miserable people took refuge upon a steep rock, preferring rather to throw themselves down alive from the top of it, than to fall into the hands of an implacable enemy. The French called this rock, Le Morne des Sauteurs, (the Hill of the Leapers), which name it still retains. The French held this island till 1762, when it was captured by the British, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of 1763. The French, however, retook it in 1799, but restored it in 1783, agreeable to the treaty of peace.

TRINIDAD.

This is the most southerly of the Windward Islands, and, next to Jamaica, the largest and most valuable of the West India islands belonging to Great Britain. It lies immediately off the north-east coast of Colombia, being only separated from it by a narrow strait. It was first visited by Columbus in 1498, at the time he discovered the river Orinoco. Its favourable situation for carrying on trade with the main, as well as the neighbouring islands, its extent, fruitfulness, and the convenience of its harbours, make it an object of considerable importance; indeed, so fertile is the soil, that not more than a thirtieth part of its surface is incapable of cultivation. Cocoa is more extensively grown in Trinidad than in any of the other British Antilles, and is of superior quality; but its sugar plantations are still more important. Coffee, indigo, tobacco, and cotton, also come to perfection here, though the quantities grown are but small; but all the fruits and vegetables of the adjacent tropical climates are found in abundance; and the pines transplanted from France or Spain are said to be equal to the parent stock.

The mineral products of Trinidad are considerable, but the most abundant is that of asphaltum, which is found in the greatest profusion in the lake Brea, or Pitch lake; part of which is in a liquid state, and consists of fluid pitch of unknown depth, in a state of slow ebullition, and exhaling a strong bituminous and sulphurous odour. Exclusive of this pitch lake, Trinidad has several extinct volcanic craters and other positive evidences of volcanic agency. Is is, however, happily exempt from the destructive scourge of hurricanes. Although discovered in 1498, Trinidad was not taken possession of by the Spaniards until 1558, when a similar scene of extermination of the natives occurred as marked most of the other territories in the New World which fell under their power. Raleigh visited it in 1595; and the French took it in 1696, but soon after restored it to the Spaniards, who held it till it was taken by the English in 1797, and ceded to them by the peace of Amiens.

ST. EUSTATIUS.

St. Eustatius, one of the West India islands, in the group called the Leeward islands, is about fifteen miles in circumference, and is, properly speaking, nothing but a steep mountain, rising out of the sea in the form of a cone, the centre of which is apparently the crater of an extinct volcano. Some Frenchmen, who had been driven from St. Christopher's, took refuge there in 1629, and abandoned it soon after. The Dutch got possession of it in 1639. They were afterward driven out by the English, and the latter by the French, to whom it was ceded by the treaty of Breda; notwithstanding which, Louis XIV. restored it to the Dutch, in whose possession it remained until the American war, when it was taken by the English, and retaken by the Dutch. During the French republican war, it was again taken by the English, with whom it now remains

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TOBAGO.

One of the West India islands belonging to Great Britain, is about thirty-five miles in length, and twelve in breadth. In 1632, two hundred men from Flushing, landed there to lay the foundation of a Dutch colony; upon which the neighbouring Indians joined with the Spaniards to oppose

an establishment that gave umbrage to both. Whoever attempted to stop their fury, were murdered or taken prisoners; and the few who escaped into the woods soon deserted the island. In 1654, the Dutch sent a fresh colony to Tobago, which was driven out, in 1666, by the English. The English were soon deprived of this conquest by the French; but Louis XIV., satisfied with having conquered it, restored it to the Dutch. In the month of February, 1677, a French fleet, destined to seize upon Tobago, fell in with the Dutch fleet sent out to oppose this expedition. They engaged in the road of the island; and the courage displayed on both sides was such, that every ship was dismasted, nor did the engagement cease till twelve vessels were burnt. The French lost the fewest men; but the Dutch kept possession of the island. D'Estrees was determined to take it, and landed there the same year, in the month of December, at a time when there was no fleet to obstruct his progress. A bomb, thrown from his camp, blew up their powder magazine, which proved a decisive stroke; and the Dutch, unable to resist, surrendered at discretion. The conquerors availed themselves to the utmost of the rights of war; not content with razing the fortifications, they burned the plantations, seized upon all the ships in the harbour, and transported the inhabitants. This conquest was secured to France by the peace that soon followed. The French, however, neglected this important island; not a single man was sent thither for many years, and it fell into a very low condition. The English claimed a right to Tobago; their arms confirmed their pretensions; and it was ceded to England by the peace of 1763. It was taken by the French in 1781, and ceded to them by the peace of 1783. The English again took it in the French republican war, (1793), and it now remains with them.

THE BAHAMAS.

These islands, the first which Columbus discovered in America, are about five hundred in number, and belong to Great Britain. St. Salvador, one of them, was the first land discovered by Columbus, on the 12th of October, 1492. They are, in general, little more than rocks just above water. When first discovered, some were densely inhabited, and their natives were sent, by the Spaniards, to perish in the mines of St. Domingo. Not one of them had a single inhabitant in 1672, when the English landed a few men on that called New Providence, who were all destroyed by the Spaniards seven or eight years after. This disaster did not deter other Englishmen from settling there in 1690. They had built about one hundred and fifty houses, when the French and Spaniards jointly attacked them in 1703, and destroyed their plantations, and carried off their negroes. The pirates next got possession, and insulted every flag, till 1719, when England fitted out a sufficient force to subdue them. The greater part of them accepted the pardon held out upon submission, and served to increase the colony, which Woods Rogers brought with him from Britain.

There are other islands in the West Indies, belonging to the English, Danes, Swedes, and Dutch, but of so little consideration, that to give details of them would afford but little interest or real information.

THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER I.

TO THE CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

THESE were originally thirteen colonies, composed of emigrants principally from Great Britain. After enduring all the hardships incident to the settlement of a new country, having at the same time to contend against hostility from the natives and each other, they triumphed over every obstacle and became permanently settled. For the space of about a century they acknowledged the sway, and continued to contribute like loyal subjects to the support of the British crown; but at the end of that period a plan of taxation was projected and attempted to be carried into effect by the parliament of Great Britain, which was peculiarly obnoxious to the people of the colonies. This attempt was the cause which finally separated the two countries; for the colonies with unexampled vigour and pertinacity opposed all the efforts of the mother country to subject them to obedience. The national existence of this country, therefore, commenced on the 4th of July, 1776, such being the date of that celebrated document, the Declaration of Independence of the colonies.

So rapid and unprecedented has been the rise of this new nation, that the great European powers have already ranked her immediately after themselves in the scale of national importance; and she is now universally attracting attention as the most celebrated and powerful Republic that exists.

A brief consideration of the causes which superinduced the American revolution, may not be here improper. As early as the year 1651, had been passed in England, a navigation act, for the regulation of the commerce of the colonies, by which it was declared that no merchandize of the English Plantations should be imported into England in any other than English vessels; also, that the transfer of articles of domestic manufacture from one colony to another were prohibited, particularly such goods as could be obtained from England; also, shortly after, was enacted another law forbidding hatters to have more than two apprentices, or to extend their business; forbidding, also, the erection of iron works, and the manufacture of steel; and prohibiting the importation of sugar, rum, and molasses, without the payment of exorbitant duties; and declaring to be illegal the felling of pitch and white-pine trees not comprehended within the enclosures.

Even so soon as 1739, certain restless scheming English politicians proposed to Sir Robert Walpole, then prime-minister, the subsequently fatal notion of imposing direct excises upon the colonies, for the purpose of raising a revenue for support of the government. That profound and sagacious statesman, however, replied, with an ironical smile, "I will leave that operation to some one of my successors, who shall have more courage than I, and less regard for commerce. During my administration I have always thought it my duty to encourage the commerce of the American colonies; and I have done it. For, it is my opinion that, if by their trade they gain five hundred thousand pounds sterling, at the end of two years full the half that sum will have entered British coffers. This is a mode of taxing them more conformable to their constitution, and to our own."

In 1763, however, the government of Great Britain found it necessary to search out every object, and every occupation, which was susceptible

of taxes, or contributions; as her public debt had at that time increased to the prodigious amount of one hundred and forty-eight millions sterling, or about six hundred and fifty-seven millions five hundred thousand dollars. It was therefore thought expedient, and even necessary, to tax the colonies; and George Grenville, then prime-minister, accordingly introduced a resolution in parliament, "That it was proper to charge certain stamp duties, in the colonies and plantations." This passed the house of commons, March 10th, 1764; but no further action was taken until the year following.

Meanwhile the colonies received intelligence of the design, with a general feeling of indignation. They considered it the commencement of a system of revenue which, if unresisted, opened a prospect of oppression boundless in extent, and endless in duration. Meetings were held, and remonstrances addressed to the king, and to both houses of parliament; and agents were sent to London, to prevent, if possible, the intended act from becoming a law. But ministers were not to be diverted from their plan; the memorials, remonstrances, petitions, and resolutions of the American provinces were alike rejected: and the obnoxious stamp act passed in the month of March, 1765, by a vote of five to one in the Commons, and without opposition in the Lords.

On the occasion of the debate preceding the law, eloquence and patriotism of the most exalted character were exhibited. Charles Townsend, a brilliant orator on the side of the ministry, took occasion to exclaim,

"These Americans, our own children, planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, protected by our arms, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence; will they now turn their backs upon us, and grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load which overwhelms us?"

Colonel Barre caught the words, and, with a vehemence becoming a soldier, rose and said:

"*Planted by your care!* No! your oppression planted them in America: they fled from your tyranny into a then uncultivated land, where they were exposed to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable, and among others, to the savage cruelty of the natives of the country, a people the most subtle, and, I take it upon me to say, the most truly terrible of any people that ever inhabited God's earth; and yet actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all these hardships with pleasure, compared with those they suffered in their own country, from the hands of those that should have been their friends.

"*They nourished by your indulgence!* They grew by your neglect: as soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised by sending persons to rule over them, in one department and another, who were, perhaps, the deputies of the deputies of some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberty, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them: men, whose behaviour, on many occasions, had caused the blood of these sons of liberty to recoil within them; men, promoted to the highest seats of justice, some of whom, to my knowledge, were glad, by going to foreign countries, to escape the vengeance of the laws of their own.

"*They protected by your arms!* They have nobly taken up arms in your defence: have exerted their valour amid their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontiers were drenched in blood, while its interior parts yielded for your enlargement the little savings of their frugality and the fruits of their toils. And *believe me, remember*, I this day told you so, that the same spirit which actuated that people at first, will continue with them still."

When the news of the passage of this act reached America, a burst of resentment was everywhere manifested. In Boston and in Philadelphia the bells were muffled and rung a funeral peal; in New-York the act was

carried through the streets with a death's head affixed to it, and styled "The folly of England and the ruin of America." In Portsmouth, a coffin, inscribed with the word "Liberty," in large letters, was carried to the grave with much ceremony; minute guns being fired during the movement of the procession, and an oration in favour of the deceased delivered at the place of interment. The stamped paper was in many places seized and destroyed, and the houses of those who sided with the government plundered. The stamp officers were compelled to resign, and the doctrine openly avowed, that England had no right to tax America. It was maintained, as a fundamental principle, that taxation and representation were inseparable; and as the American colonies were not represented in the parliament of Great Britain, the act complained of was every way reprehensible, unjust, and unconstitutional.

On the night the bill was passed, Doctor Franklin, who was then in London, wrote to Charles Thompson, afterwards secretary of the continental Congress, "The sun of liberty is set; the Americans must now light the lamps of industry and economy." To which Mr. Thompson answered, "Be assured we shall light torches of quite another sort:" Thus predicting, as it were, the convulsions about to follow.

The opposition to the stamp act was so spirited and universal, that parliament had only the alternative to compel submission or repeal the law. Accordingly, on the 22d February, 1766, General Conway introduced a motion in the house of commons for its repeal. Great excitement was exhibited on the occasion; but a division of the house being at length called for, at three o'clock in the morning, the vote stood as follows: one hundred and sixty-seven voices against the motion, and two hundred and seventy-five in favour of it: so the obnoxious bill was repealed.

As a salvo to the wounded honour of the ministerial party, a declaratory act was passed at the same time, more hostile to the American rights than anything which had preceded it. The language of the enactment was, "That parliament have, and of right ought to have, power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

Nevertheless, the satisfaction of the people on the repeal of the act was sincere and general. But they mistook entirely the spirit and determination of the ministry; for, in 1767, a bill was passed imposing a duty to be collected in the colonies on glass, paper, paints, and tea. Again the fire of opposition and alarm, which had been partially smothered by the previous action of parliament, broke forth anew; again associations were formed to prevent the importation of British goods; and meetings called to resolve, petition, and remonstrate. Parliament presently suspended the action of this law also, except upon the single article of *tea*, upon which a merely nominal duty of three pence per pound was demanded. The non-importation recommendations of meetings and associations to suspend the purchase of tea, had been so strictly complied with, that but little had been brought into the country. The consequence was, that a vast quantity, seventeen millions of pounds, had accumulated upon the hands of the East India Company. For their relief, the parliament now authorized them to export this tea into any part of the world, free of duty. By this regulation, tea would come cheaper to the colonies than before it had been made a source of revenue—parliament having, in 1767, reduced the duty on it to three pence a pound.

Confident of now finding a market for their tea in America, the East India Company freighted several ships with that article for the different colonies, and appointed agents to dispose of it. On the arrival of this tea, however, the determination of the colonists was formed—they would not pay even *three pence* by way of *duty*. The consequence was, that cargoes of tea, sent to New York and Philadelphia, were returned without being entered at the custom house; and those sent to Charleston, South Carolina, were stored, but not offered for sale.

In Massachusetts, a different fate awaited it. Upon its arrival, the inhabitants endeavoured to procure its return, but this being impracticable, the tea having been consigned to the relations and friends of the royal governor, Hutchinson, they resolved to destroy it. Accordingly, a number of persons, dressed like Indians, repaired to the ships, and discharged three hundred and forty-two chests of tea into the water, without, however, doing any other damage.

Intelligence of these proceedings was, on the 7th of March, 1774, communicated in a message from the throne to both houses of parliament. The excitement was pecularly strong. In the spirit of revenge against Massachusetts, and particularly against Boston, which was considered as the chief seat of rebellion, a bill was brought forward, called the "Boston port bill," by which the port of Boston was precluded from the privilege of landing and discharging, or of loading and shipping goods, wares, and merchandise.

A second bill, which passed at this time, essentially altered the charter of the province, making the appointment of the council, justices, &c., dependent upon the crown, or its agent. A third soon followed, authorizing and directing the governor to send any person indicted for murder, or any other capital offence, to another colony, or to Great Britain, for trial.

Early the next year, January 7th, 1775, Lord Chatham, Mr. Pitt, after a long retirement, resumed his seat in the house of lords, and introduced *a conciliatory bill*, the object of which was, to settle the troubles in America. But the efforts of this venerable and peacemaking man wholly failed, the bill being rejected by a majority of sixty-four to thirty-two, without even the compliment of lying on the table.

The crisis, therefore, had arrived; and the signal of war being given, the blood shed at Lexington opened the scene. The circumstances of the case were as follows; General Gage, the king's governor of Massachusetts, learning that a quantity of military stores had been deposited by the provincials at Concord, eighteen miles from Boston, detached Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, and Major Pitcairn, with eight hundred grenadiers to seize them. It is said, also, that another and more important object of the same expedition was to obtain possession of the persons of two distinguished leaders of the patriots, John Hancock and Samuel Adams. They receiving timely intimation of the design through the means of Dr. Warren, an ardent lover of freedom, who afterwards fell on Bunker's Hill, they made their escape. When the detachment arrived at Lexington, a small town lying in their course, they found a body of militia, numbering about seventy, under arms. Major Pitcairn, riding up to them, cried with a loud voice, "Disperse, disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms and disperse." The sturdy yeomanry not immediately obeying his orders, he approached nearer, discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire. The result is known. They succeeded in destroying the stores, but were compelled to retire with the loss of 273 men, while the loss on the side of the colonists only amounted to 84.

The provincial congress of Massachusetts, being in session at this time, despatched a minute account of the affair at Lexington, to Great Britain, with depositions to prove that the British troops were the aggressors. In conclusion, they used this emphatic language; "Appealing to heaven for the justice of our cause, *we determine to die, or be free.*"

While these things were passing within and about Boston, the other provinces were making their preparations for war with extreme activity. The city of New York itself, in which the English had more friends than in any other on the continent, and which hitherto had manifested so much reserve, at the first news of the battle of Lexington, was seized with a violent emotion, and resolved to make common cause with the other colonies. The inhabitants adopted the resolutions of the general Congress,

with the determination to persist in them until the entire re-establishment of constitutional laws. They drew up an energetic address to the common council of the city of London, which had shown itself favourable to the cause of the colonies; they declared, that all the calamities in the train of civil war, could not constrain the Americans to bend to the will of Great Britain, and that such was the universal sentiment, from Nova Scotia to Georgia; they conjured the city of London to exert all its endeavours to restore peace between the two parts of the empire; but as to themselves, they protested their determination no longer to endure tyranny."

The second continental Congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th May, 1775, and as war had now actually commenced, it became necessary to fix upon a proper person to conduct it. The one unanimously selected by Congress was GEORGE WASHINGTON, a member of their body, from Virginia. General Washington, in his reply to the president of Congress, who announced to him his appointment, after consenting to enter upon the momentous duty assigned him, added; "As to pay, Sir, I beg leave to assure the Congress, that as no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept this arduous employment, at the expense of my domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. These I doubt not they will discharge, and that is all I desire." A special commission was drawn up and presented to him, as commander-in-chief of the American forces; on presenting it, Congress unanimously adopted this resolution: "That they would maintain and assist him, and adhere to him with their lives and fortunes, in the cause of American liberty." Following his appointment, was that of four major-generals, Artemas Ward, Charles Lee, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam; and eight brigadier-generals, Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Greene.

It may not be inappropriate here to give a table of the time and order of the principal battles which led to the freedom of the colonies from their mother country, together with the name of the commanding officer of either force, with their respective losses. The war commenced, as we have said, with the battle of

LEXINGTON, April 19, 1775; British, Major Pitcairn, loss 273; American yeomanry, loss 84.

BUNKER HILL, June 17, 1775; British, Lord Howe, loss 1054; American, Col. Prescott, loss 453.

FLATBUSH, Aug. 12, 1776; British, Lord Howe, loss 400; American, Putnam and Sullivan, loss 2000.

WHITE PLAINS, Oct. 28, 1766; British, Lord Howe, loss 300 to 400; American, General Washington, loss 300 to 400.

TRENTON, Dec. 25, 1776; British, General Rahl, loss 1000; American, General Washington, loss 9.

PRINCETON, Jan. 3, 1777; British, General Mawhood, loss 400; American, General Washington, loss 100.

HUBBARDSTON, Aug. 7, 1777; British, General Frazer and Baron Reidesel, loss 180; American, Cols. Francis and Warner, loss 800.

BENNINGTON, Aug. 16, 1777; British, Generals Baum and Breyman, loss 800; American, General Stark, loss 100.

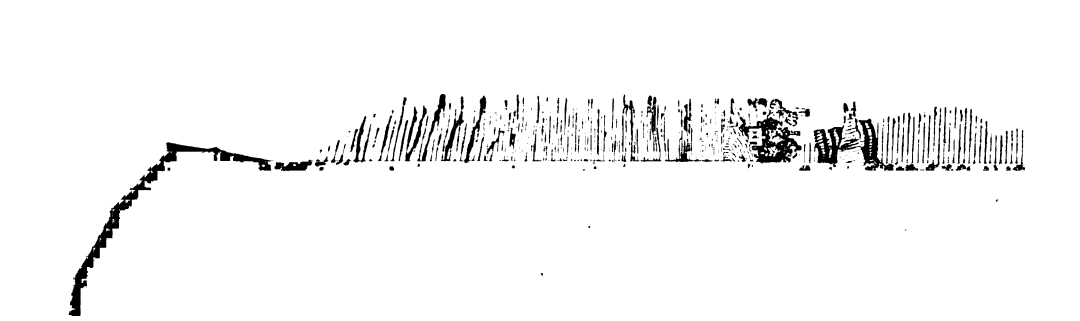
BRANDYWINE, Sept. 11, 1777; British, Lord Howe, loss 500; American, General Washington, loss 1200.

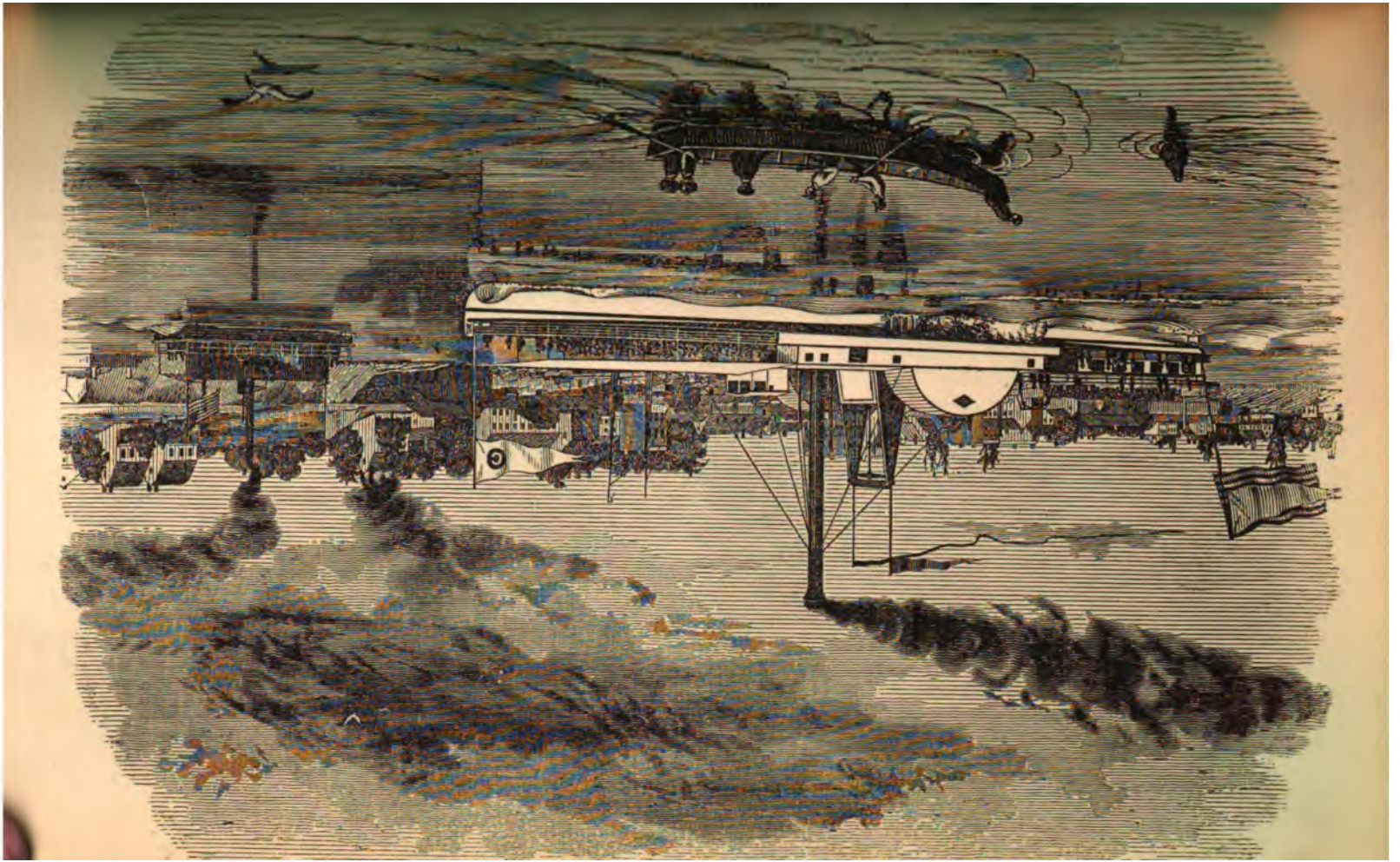
STILLWATER, Sept. 17, 1777; British, General Burgoyne, loss 600; American, General Gates, loss 350.

GERMANTOWN, Oct. 4, 1777; British, General Grey and Col. Musgrave, loss 600; American, General Washington, loss 1200.

SARATOGA, Oct. 17, 1777; British, General Burgoyne, surrendered 5752 men, his entire army, to General Gates.

RED HOOK, Oct. 22, 1777; British, Count Donop, loss 500; American, Col. Greene, loss 32.





MONMOUTH, June 25, 1778; British, General Clinton, loss 400; American, General Washington, loss 130.

RHODE ISLAND, Aug. 29, 1778; British, General Pigott, loss 260; American, General Sullivan, loss 211.

BRIAR CREEK, March 30, 1779; British, General Prevost, loss 13; American, General Ash, loss 400.

STONY POINT, July 15, 1779, British, General Johnson, loss 600; American, General Wayne, loss 100.

CAMDEN, Aug. 16, 1780; British, Lord Cornwallis, loss 375; American, General Gates, loss 610.

KING'S MOUNTAIN, Oct. 1, 1780; British, Major Ferguson, loss 950; American, Cols. Cleveland, Campbell, and Shelby, loss 96.

COWPENS, Jan. 17, 1781; British, Col. Tarleton, loss 800; American, Col. Morgan, loss 72.

GUILFORD COURT-HOUSE, March 15, 1781; British, Lord Cornwallis, loss 523; American, General Greene, loss 400.

HOBKIRK'S HILL, April 25, 1781; British, Lord Rawdon, loss 300 to 400; American, General Greene, loss 300 to 400.

EUTAW SPRINGS, Sept. 8, 1781; British, General Stewart, loss 1000; American, General Greene, loss 550.

YORKTOWN Oct. 19, 1783; British, Lord Cornwallis surrendered 7073 men, his entire army, to General Washington.

This last surrender was the final conclusion of the revolutionary war. The whole expense of the struggle to the Americans, estimated in round numbers, was $135,191,700. The occasion of peace, as may be well imagined, was celebrated throughout the country with the most fervent demonstrations of joy; and General Washington, the American Fabius, who had with such signal ability conducted this great contest to a successful issue, was unanimously called to preside over the councils of the nation.

Provisional articles of peace, acknowledging the independence of the United States, were signed in Paris, Nov. 30th, 1782, by John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and Henry Laurens, on the part of the United States, and Mr. Fitzherbert and Mr. Oswald, on the part of Great Britain. The definitive treaty was signed September 30th, 1783. The confederation of the states, which in time of the war had given to the resolves of Congress the force of law, now that the danger was passed, evinced that its power was inadequate to all the purposes of an efficient government. It could neither meet the claims against the United States, provide for the public debt, raise a revenue, or harmonize the jarring interests of the states. Indeed, the difficulties which attended the formation of this new government, it is said, though different in kind were scarcely less than those of achieving its independence. But by a happy concurrence of circumstances, a Constitution was at length formed and ratified, which has effectually secured the happiness and prosperity of the people, and stands as an illustrious proof of the wisdom of the fathers of the revolution, and a model for other nations in the pursuit of freedom.

The Constitution is here appended.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

ARTICLE I.

Sec. I.—All legislative powers herein granted, shall be vested in a congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

Sec. II.—1. The house of representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year, by the people of the several states; and

the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative, who shall not have attained the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of the state in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one; Connecticut five; New-York six; New Jersey four; Pennsylvania eight; Delaware one; Maryland six; Virginia ten; North-Carolina five; South-Carolina five; and Georgia three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The house of representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sec. III.—1. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he is chosen.

4. The vice-president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

6. The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief-justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment, shall not extend farther than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Sec. IV.—1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for

senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state, by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year; and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Sec. V.—1. Each house shall be judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members; and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business, but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question, shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Sec. VI.—1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be priviliged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to or returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house, during his continuance in office.

Sec. VII.—1. All bills for raising revenues shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approves, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it must be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays; and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill, shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return; in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the president of the United

States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two-thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the face of a bill.

Sec. VIII.—The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises: to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general warfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States:

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States:

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes:

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States:

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures:

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securies and current coin of the United States:

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads:

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries:

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court: to define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations:

10. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning capture on land and water:

11. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use, shall be for a longer term than two years:

12. To provide and maintain a navy:

13. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces:

14. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions:

15. To provide for organizing, arming and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by Congress:

16. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings:—And

17. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Sec. IX.—1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight; but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when, in cases of rebellion, or invasion, the public safety may require it

3. No bill of attainder, or ex-post facto law, shall be passed.

4. No capitation, or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one state, be obliged to enter, clear or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement or account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money, shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no persons holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Sec. X.—1. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility.

2. No state shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the nett produce of all duties and imposts laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress. No state shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit delay.

Article II.

Sec. I.—1. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with the vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in Congress;—but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. [Annulled. See Amendments, Art 12.]

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the elector, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person, except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president; neither shall any person be eligible to that office, who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice-president; and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice-president, declaring what officer shall then act as president, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed or a president shall be elected.

7. The president shall at stated times receive, for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected; and he shall not receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office he shall take the following oath or affiirmation.

9. "I do solemnly swear [or affirm] that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United states and will to the best of my ability preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Sec. II—1. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states when called into actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion in writing of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardon for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the consent and advice of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper, in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sec. III.—1. He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration, such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors, and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed; and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Sec. IV.—1. The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

Article III.

Sec. I.—1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sec. II.—1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of

different states, and between a state or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court, shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress may make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Sec. III.—1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

Article IV.

Sec. I.—1. Full faith and credit shall be given, in each state, to the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings, shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sec. II.—1. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all priviliges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

2. A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour; but shall be delivered up, on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

Sec. III.—1. New states may be admitted by the Congress into this union; but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state, nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislature of the states concerned, as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution, shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular state.

Sec. IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every state in this union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion: and, on application of the legislature, or of the executive, (when the legislature cannot be convened,) against domestic violence.

Article V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution; or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a

convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall, in any manner, affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby; anything in the Constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and executive and judicial officers both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office, or public trust, under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the convention of nine states shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *Pres't.*

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war, or public danger; nor shall any person be subject, for the same offence, to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour; and to have the assistance of counsel for the defence.

ARTICLE VII.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States, by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.

1. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for president and vice-president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as president, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as vice-president; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice-president, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate; the president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the

greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no one has such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death, or other constitutional disability of the president.

2. The person having the greatest number of votes as vice-president, shall be the vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the senate shall choose the vice-president; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

3. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of president, shall be eligible to that of vice-president of the United States.

Article XIII.

If any citizen of the United States shall accept, claim, receive, or retain any title of nobility, or honour, or shall, without the consent of Congress, accept and retain any present, pension, office, or emolument of any kind whatever, from any emperor, king, prince, or foreign power, such person shall cease to be a citizen of the United States, and shall be incapable of holding any office of trust or profit under them or either of them.

CHAPTER II.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF GOVERNMENT.

On the second Monday of May, 1787, delegates from the several states assembled at Philadelphia, for the purpose of forming a Constitution for the United States. The preceding instrument was adopted (being mainly the production of Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia), and sent to the several states for their approval. After a due consideration by the state conventions, it was finally adopted by them all; and the Congress of July, 1788, in conclusion, fully ratified it. On the first Wednesday of January, 1789, electors of president and vice-president were appointed; and on the first Wednesday of February, 1789, George Washington, "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," was unanimously chosen president, and John Adams, vice-president. General Washington was inaugurated as first president of the Union on the 30th of April, 1789, in the open gallery of the old Federal Hall, in New-York, where the Custom House now stands. And perhaps there never was a warmer response from any multitude, than that which greeted the conclusion of the ceremony with, "Long live George Washington!" And now, after an experiment of more than half a century, after having seen how completely this Constitution secures all the purposes of a good government, and at how cheap a rate, the fear and trembling which marked its commencement are exchanged for steadfast confidence and unbounded hope: it stands like a

light-house on the shore of the sea of liberty, to direct the political voyager in his perilous course to the port of freedom.

In despite of the prognostications of enemies of freedom abroad, and the fears of the weak-hearted at home, the entire eight years of Washington's administration of the government passed away without his once assuming the exercise of any authority which might be termed unconstitutional. He betrayed no disposition to tyrannize, no latent desire to elevate himself or family unduly in the land; his enemies he pursued not; and they looked in vain to the last, who sought in him the slightest aspiration for any regal power. Nor were his capabilities in council less distinguished for discernment and propriety, than in the field: and the men he at first drew around him as advisers, who were subsequently confirmed as his cabinet, afforded a new evidence of his singularly admirable insight into human character, as well, also, as that the land was even then rich in the most glorious of all *materiel* whereof to form a nation's government, *i. e.*, able and *honest* men.

Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, was his Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, of New York, Secretary of the Treasury; General H. Knox, of Massachusetts, Secretary of War; Samuel Osgood, of Massachusetts, Post-Master General; Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, Attorney General; and John Jay, of New-York, at the head of the Judicial department. The Associate Justices, United States' Supreme Court, were John Rutledge, of South Carolina; James Wilson, of Pennsylvania; William Cushing, of Massachusetts; Robert Harrison, of Maryland; and John Blair, of Virginia. Before the close of Washington's *second* term, the chief officers of his government were changed, the following names being substituted: Timothy Pickering, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of State; Oliver Wolcott, of Connecticut, Secretary of the Treasury; James M'Henry, of Maryland, Secretary of War; Joseph Habersham, of Georgia, Post-Master General; Charles Lee, of Virginia, Attorney General; and Oliver Ellsworth, of Connecticut, at the head of the Judiciary.

The American people having thus, by an energetic though long and bloody struggle, thrown off all allegiance and achieved for themselves independence and an honourable position among the nations of the earth, have since continued to grow and flourish. Very few events have occurred to disturb the harmony of the Republic; perhaps the first of any note, was an outbreak in the interior of Massachusetts, which for a short time threatened to involve the country in a civil war. One Daniel Shays, a person of some energy, about the close of the year 1786, collected together not less than two thousand men, who demanded that the collection of debts should be suspended, and that the legislature should authorize the emission of paper money for general circulation. Two bodies of militia, drawn from those parts where the disaffection did not prevail, were immediately despatched against them, one under the command of General Lincoln, the other of General Shepard. The rebels were easily dispersed; and afterwards abandoning their seditious purposes, accepted the proffered indemnity of the government.

The next occurrence of a rebellious nature which took place, arose from the necessity of levying taxes for the support of government. A duty had been imposed upon spirits distilled within the country, which was bearing heavily upon the people of western Pennsylvania. The leaders of the disaffected in consequence called a public meeting, which was held in September, 1791, at Pittsburgh, and was very largely attended. Resolutions were passed at this meeting, declaring all excise taxes hostile to liberty, and denouncing all such officers as might be appointed to collect them; great exertions were made to inflame the public mind against any who should willingly pay, and to encourage resistance to the laws; committees of correspondence were also appointed to give unity of sys-

tem to their measures, and to increase the number of their associates; subsequently other meetings were held at which similar resolutions were adopted. A proclamation of the president exhorting all persons to desist from illegal combinations, and calling upon the magistrates to execute the laws, was disregarded; the marshal of the state, while serving processes upon delinquents and offenders, was resisted and fired upon; the inspector of the revenue, dreading the indignation of the populace, procured a detachment of soldiers to guard his house, and they were attacked by a numerous body of insurgents, who, after setting fire to several contiguous buildings, obliged the soldiers to leave the house and deliver themselves up; several individuals zealous in supporting the government were ordered to leave the country, and compelled to obey. The effective strength of the insurgents was computed at seven thousand men—and an intention was openly showed of forcibly resisting the general government, with the view of extorting a repeal of the offensive laws.

The president, conceiving himself bound by the most solemn obligations, "to take care that the laws be faithfully executed," called out a portion of the militia of Pennsylvania, and the adjacent states, to suppress this insurrection. In the autumn of 1794, fifteen thousand were detached, and being placed under the command of Governor Lee, of Virginia, were marched into the disaffected counties. The strength of this army rendering resistance desperate, none was offered, and no blood was shed. A few of the most active leaders were seized, and detained for legal prosecution. The great body of the insurgents on submission were pardoned, as were also the leaders, after their trial and conviction of treason. The government acquired the respect of the people by this exertion of its force, and their affection, by this display of its lenity.

Shortly after the commencement of Mr. Washington's administration, he strongly recommended to Congress the adoption of some effectual measures for establishing the public credit. Alexander Hamilton, in an able report on the state of the Treasury, proposed a plan for the object. He estimated the public debt to be at that time about fifty-four millions of dollars: twelve millions were due to France and Holland—and the balance had been contracted for by the several states in the course of the war, for its support. These debts, he proposed, should all be assumed by the general government, and paid out of the public treasury. This measure was strongly opposed by the republican party. It was contended that men had taken advantage of the low state of public credit, and bought up for a small price, certificates of security against the government, and that the present holders were not justly entitled to receive more than they had paid. To this it was answered, that the government originally promised to pay the whole, and the reason why these securities had depreciated, was owing to its not having exactly fulfilled this promise; and now, to preserve the public faith, the whole must be paid. Further, it was asserted that, for the general government to assume the debts of the several state governments, would be dangerous to the sovereignty of the states: but this objection was ably answered, and after some debate, the plan was in the main adopted.

Another financial measure of the secretary of the treasury soon attracted much attention and dispute. Through his means a bill was introduced into Congress for establishing a national bank, with a capital of ten millions of dollars. This was violently opposed by the republican party. It was contended that banks were unnecessary, and that by the constitution, Congress was not vested with the competent power to establish a national bank. After a debate of great length, however, the bill was passed, by a majority of nineteen votes. Washington was now clamorously called upon to crush "the monster" by the power of his veto; but he chose rather to require from the heads of departments their differ-

ent opinions on the subject, in writing. Mr. Jefferson, Secretary of State, and Mr. Randolph, Attorney General, considered the bill as entirely unconstitutional: while Mr. Hamilton, on the other hand, maintained the opposite opinion with great ability and decision. After weighing their opinions, and examining the subject in all its relations, Washington became satisfied of the the utility of the bill, and accordingly gave it the sanction of his name. The charter of this, the first United States' Bank, extended to the 4th of May, 1811.

In 1790, a termination was put to the war which for several years had raged between the Creek Indians and the state of Georgia. Pacific overtures were also made to the hostile tribes inhabiting the banks of the Scioto and Wabash. These being rejected, an army of fourteen hundred men, commanded by General Harmer, was despatched against them. Two battles were fought near Chilicothe, Ohio, between successive detachments from this army and the Indians, in which the latter were victorious. Emboldened by these successes, they made more vigorous attacks on the frontier settlements, which suffered all the distressing calamities of an Indian war. Additional troops were raised, and the command given to General St. Clair. With near two thousand men he marched, in October, into the wilderness. By desertion and detachments, this force was reduced to fourteen hundred. On the third of November, they encamped a few miles from the villages on the Miami, intending to remain there until joined by those who were absent. But before sunrise next morning, just after the troops were dismissed from parade, they were attacked unexpectedly by the Indians. The new levies, who were in front, fell back in confusion upon the regulars. These, who had been hastily formed, were thrown into disorder. They, however, with great intrepidity, advanced into the midst of the enemy, who retired from covert to covert, keeping always beyond reach, and again returning as soon as the troops were recalled from pursuit. In these charges, many brave and experienced officers were killed; the loss of men was also great, and no permanent impression was made upon the enemy. At length, after a contest of three or four hours, General St. Clair, whose ill health disabled him from performing the active duties of commander, determined to withdraw from the field the remnant of his troops. The instant the directions to retire were given, a disorderly flight commenced. Fortunately for the survivors, the victorious Indians were soon recalled from the pursuit to the camp, by their avidity for plunder; and the vanquished continued their retreat unmolested to the frontier settlements. In this battle, the numbers engaged on each side were supposed to be equal. Of the whites, the slaughter was beyond example. Six hundred and thirty were killed and missing, and two hundred and sixty were wounded—a loss which proves at once the obstinacy of the defence, and the bravery of the assailants. On receiving information of this disaster, Congress resolved to prosecute the war with increased vigour, and made provision directly for augmenting by enlistment the military force of the nation to five thousand men.

In 1791, was completed the first census of the inhabitants of the United States. They amounted to 3,921,326, of which number 695,655 were slaves. The revenue, according to the report of the secretary of the treasury, amounted to $4,771,000, the exports to about $19,000,000, and imports to about $20,000,000. A great improvement in the circumstances of the people began at this period to be visible. The establishment of a firm and regular government, and confidence in the men whom they had chosen to administer it, gave an impulse to their exertions which bore them rapidly forward in their career of prosperity.

In the autumn of 1792, General Washington was again unanimously elected president of the American republic, and in March, 1793, was inducted into office. Mr. Adams was re-elected vice-president, in opposition

to George Clinton, of New-York. In the progress of these elections, but little party feeling was exhibited. The repose of society was not then disturbed, as at present—but the citizens raised to posts of the highest honor those whom their judgments and affections designated as the most worthy.

After the defeat of St. Clair by the Indians, in 1791, General Wayne was appointed to command the American forces. This officer taking post near the country of the enemy, made assiduous and long-protracted endeavours to negociate a peace. Failing in this, he marched against them, at the head of three thousand men. On the 20th of August, 1794, an action took place in the vicinity of one of the British garrisons on the banks of the Miami. A rapid and vigorous charge roused the savages from their coverts, and they were driven more than two miles at the point of the bayonet. Broken and dismayed, they fled without renewing the combat. Their houses and cornfields were destroyed, and forts were erected on the sites of the towns laid waste. In 1795, a treaty was concluded at Greenville, Ohio, which was long and faithfully observed, and gave peace and security to the frontier inhabitants; in consequence of which, the already abundant population of the eastern states began to spread, with astonishing rapidity, over the fertile region northwest of the Ohio.

Simultaneous with the conclusion of the Indian war, in 1795, a treaty highly satisfactory to the Americans was formed with Spain. That country had from the first regarded with especial coldness the hopes of the republicans; fearing, perhaps, lest the principles of liberty and the desire of independence should find their way into her contiguous American provinces. Becoming at length involved in a war with France, the Spanish government intimated its willingness then to form a satisfactory treaty with the United States, which was accordingly concluded. The navigation of the Mississippi river, which was controlled by the province of Louisiana, and was very important to the south-western states, had formerly been denied them, and was a fruitful source of disturbance and threatened invasion of the Spanish territory. This treaty secured to the United States the free navigation of the Mississippi to the ocean, and the privilege of landing and depositing cargoes at New-Orleans. In the same year, also, a permanent peace was arranged with the regency of Algiers, with which state the republic was previously at war, on account of its flagrant piracies and interruptions of American commerce. Thus all difficulties were arrranged, and the star of independence again shone brightly forth upon the world.

At the close of 1796, the two rival parties of the nation brought forward their candidates for the presidency. John Adams, of Massachusetts, was voted for by the federalists, while Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, was upheld by the republicans. The contest was nearly equal. Mr. Adams, however, was chosen to fill the first office, and Mr. Jefferson, of course, succeeded to the second. The cabinet during this administration, was composed as follows: John Marshall, of Virginia, Secretary of State; Samuel Dexter, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Treasury; Roger Griswold, of Connecticut, Secretary of War; Benjamin Stoddert, of Maryland, Secretary of the Navy; no change was made in the office of Attorney General, or the chief of the post-office department.

When this administration came into power, it found the nation involved in difficulties with France. Mr. Pinckney, who had been sent by Washington to adjust existing differences between the two republics, was ordered to leave the country; and the American government was soon after under the painful necessity of declaring war against its ancient ally. That country was at the time suffering under the misguided rule of the Directory, which it seems desired the co-operation of the United States

in their European wars, and had demanded of the American government a large sum of money previous to any negotiation for a commercial treaty. To enforce compliance with their unjust demands, a law had been passed authorizing the capture, in certain cases, of American merchant vessels by French cruizers; and in consequence of this several hundred vessels loaded with valuable cargoes, were, while prosecuting a lawful trade, taken, and the whole confiscated. When these events were known in the United States, they excited general indignation. The spirit of party appeared to be extinct. "Millions for defence, not a cent for tribute," resounded from every quarter of the Union. The former treaty of alliance with France was declared by Congress to be now without force, and authority was given for capturing French armed vessels. Laws were passed authorizing the president, whenever he should deem it necessary, to detach eighty thousand men from the militia of the United States—and providing for an increase of the navy, and for augmenting the revenue of the nation.

To display to France and to the world his desire of peace, and to leave no means unattempted to preserve it, the president resolved to institute a formal and solemn mission to the French republic. General Pinckney, John Marshall, and Elbridge Gerry, were accordingly appointed envoys, and were instructed to seek a reconciliation as the representatives of a people dreading war much, but the sacrifice of honour more. These the Directory refused to receive. After remaining several months at Paris, pressing in vain to be received and heard, the two former, who were federalists, were ordered to leave France; but Mr. Gerry, who was a republican, was permitted to remain, and was invited singly to enter into a discussion relative to the commencement of a negotiation. This also failing to produce any good effect, belligerent operations commenced. On land, no opportunity was presented of testing the courage and skill of the American troops; but at sea, a desperate action was fought between the frigate Constellation of thirty-eight guns, commanded by Captain Truxton, and the French frigate L'Insurgente, of forty guns; in this, the latter, although of superior force, was compelled to surrender. The same intrepid officer, in a subsequent action, obliged another French frigate, La Vengeance, of fifty guns, to strike her colors; but she afterward escaped in the night, owing to the disabled state of the Constellation. By such means the United States, in arms at home and victorious on the ocean, commanded the respect of their enemy. The Directory made overtures of peace. The president immediately appointed ministers, who, on their arrival at Paris, found the executive authority in the possession of Bonaparte as first consul. They were promptly accredited, and in September, 1800, a treaty was concluded satisfactory to both countries.

While this negotiation was in progress, an event occurred which overshadowed the whole American people with gloom. On the 14th of December, 1799, after an illness of one day only, General WASHINGTON, the father of his country, expired. He died at his residence at Mount Vernon, of an inflammation of the throat, aged sixty-eight years. After having led on to victory the armies of his countrymen—after having filled for eight successive years the presidential chair, and in all cases manifesting the same unapproachable integrity with which his public career had first commenced, this singularly virtuous MAN, may truly be said to have "filled the measure of his own and his country's glory." Intelligence of this event, as it rapidly spread, produced spontaneous, deep and unaffected grief, suspending every other thought, and absorbing every different feeling. The American Congress, then in session at Philadelphia, immediately adjourned; and the senate, on this melancholy occasion, addressed a letter of condolence to the president of the United States, which contained the following just tribute to the memory of this great man:—

"With patriotic pride we review the life of our Washington, and compare him with those of other countries who have been pre-eminent in fame. Ancient and modern names are diminished before him. Greatness and guilt have too often been allied; but his fame is whiter than it is brilliant. The destroyers of nations stood abashed at the majesty of his virtues. It reproved the intemperance of their ambition, and darkened the splendour of victory. Such was the man whom we deplore. Thanks to God, his glory is consummated. Washington yet lives on earth in his spotless example—his spirit is in heaven. Let his countrymen consecrate the memory of the heroic general, the patriotic statesman, and the virtuous sage: let them teach their children never to forget that the fruits of his labours, and of his example, *are their inheritance*."

In pursuance of a law enacted in 1790, a place had been selected on the Potomac, a few miles above Mount Vernon, for the permanent seat of the national government. Within a district ten miles square, which was called the District of Columbia, a city was laid out, to which the name of Washington was appropriately given. Public buildings having been erected, the officers of government removed to that place in 1800, and in November of that year, Congress, for the first time, there commenced its session. A second census of the people was now ordered, and in the following year completed. They then amounted to 5,319,762, having in ten years increased nearly one million four hundred thousand. In the same number of years, the exports increased from *nineteen* to *ninety-four* millions, and the revenue from $4,771,000 to $12,945,000. This rapid advance in the career of prosperity has no parallel in the history of nations, and it is to be attributed principally to the institutions of the country, which, securing equal privileges to all, give to the enterprize and industry of all free scope and full encouragement.

Since the year 1801, war had existed between the United States and Tripoli, one of the Barbary states, on the coast of the Mediterranean. No memorable event occurred until 1803, when a large squadron under the command of Commodore Preble, was despatched into that sea. On arriving before Tripoli, Captain Bainbridge, in the frigate Philadelphia, of forty-four guns, was sent into the harbour to reconnoitre. While in eager pursuit of a small vessel, he unfortunately advanced so far that the frigate grounded, and all attempts to remove her were in vain. The sea around her was immediately covered with Tripolitan gun-boats, and Captain Bainbridge was compelled to surrender. The officers were considered as prisoners of war; but the crew, according to the customs of Barbary, were treated as slaves. At the capture of this frigate, the enemy rejoiced and exulted beyond measure. Lieutenant Stephen Decatur conceived the design of retaking or destroying her. Commodore Preble, applauding the spirit of the youthful hero, granted him permission to make the attempt. In February, 1804, he accordingly sailed from Syracuse, Sicily, in a small schooner, having on board but seventy-six men—entered undiscovered the harbour of Tripoli, and advancing boldly in the teeth of a battery, under the guns of which the Philadelphia had been towed and anchored, took his station alongside the frigate. Perceiving the crew in consternation, Decatur sprang on board, his men followed, and with drawn swords rushed upon the enemy. The decks were soon cleared, some being killed and others driven into the sea. A heavy cannonade upon the frigate from the batteries on shore and the corsairs near was now commenced, and several vessels of war were seen approaching. She was therefore set on fire and abandoned, none of the party being killed and but four wounded. Throughout all the piratical states, this brilliant exploit exalted the reputation of the American arms. The president, in reward of his address and bravery, promoted Lieutenant Decatur to the rank of post-captain in the navy.

While the squadron remained before Tripoli, other deeds of heroism were performed, evincing a love of fame and a devotion to country unsurpassed in Grecian or Roman story. The events and operations of this war shed a lustre upon the American name, gave experience and character to the officers, and prepared them to acquire greater glory in a contest with a nobler foe. They were equalled, however, by an enterprize on land, bold and romantic in its conception, and exhibiting in its execution uncommon address and decision of character. William Eaton, who had been a captain in the American army, was at the commencement of this war consul at Tunis. He there became acquainted with Hamet Caramanly, whom a younger brother had excluded from the throne of Tripoli. With him he concerted an expedition against the reigning sovereign, and returned to the United States to obtain permission and the means to undertake it. Permission was granted, the co-operation of the squadron recommended, and such pecuniary assistance as could be spared was afforded.

To raise an army in Egypt, and lead it to attack the usurper in his dominions, was the project which had been concerted. In the beginning of 1805, Eaton met Hamet at Alexandria, and was appointed general of his forces. On the 6th of March, at the head of a respectable body of mounted Arabs, and about seventy Christians, he set out for Tripoli. His route lay across a desert of one thousand miles in extent. On his march, he encountered peril, fatigue, and suffering, the description of which would resemble the exaggerations of romance. On the 25th of April, having been fifty days on the march, he arrived before Derne, a Tripolitan city on the Mediterranean, and found in the harbour a part of the American squadron destined to assist him. He learned also that the usurper, having received notice of his approach, had raised a considerable army and was then within a day's march of the city. No time was therefore to be lost. The next morning he summoned the governor to surrender, who returned for answer, "My head or yours." The city was assaulted, and after a contest of two hours and a half, possession gained. The Christians suffered severely, and the general was slightly wounded. Great exertions were immediately made to fortify the city, which were partially successful. On the 8th of May, it was attacked by the Tripolitan army. Although ten times more numerous than Eaton's band, the assailants, after persisting four hours in the attempt, were compelled to retire. On the 10th of June another battle was fought, in which the enemy were defeated. The next day the American frigate Constitution arrived in the harbour, which so terrified the Tripolitans that they fled precipitately to the desert. The frigate came, however, to arrest the operations of Eaton, in the midst of his brilliant and successful career. Alarmed at his progress, the reigning bashaw had offered terms of peace which, being much more favorable than had before been offered, were accepted by Mr. Lear, the authorized agent of the government. Sixty thousand dollars were given as a ransom for the unfortunate American prisoners, and an engagement was made to withdraw all support from Hamet. The nation, proud of the exploits of Eaton, regretted this diplomatic interference; but the treaty was ratified by the president and senate—and thus ended the war in the Mediterranean.

Just previous to these occurrences, an election of stirring interest had taken place. The two great political parties in the United States were still distinguished as federalists and republicans, and were then of nearly equal strength. Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr received the same number of votes for the office of president, and so strenuously and with such acerbity did the parties contest the matter, that it was not until after thirty-five ballotings that the former was elected over the latter. Colonel Burr next offered himself as a candidate for the governorship of the state

of New York; but having already lost the confidence of his party by receiving the votes of the federalists in the house of representatives against Jefferson, he failed also in this, and General Morgan Lewis was elected over him. Stung to the quick by these failures, Burr is said to have plotted a scheme to divide the Union, or to erect an independent state from the Spanish dependencies adjacent, to have for its head himself. First, however, his heated passions goaded him on to recompense himself for all that he had lost, by some deep-laid revenge against the men who had mainly been the cause of his political undoing. Foremost among them stood Alexander Hamilton, a man as pure in politics as he was eminent in talents and profound in judgment: a man always of unblemished character, the friend of Washington, and a statesman whose proud name to this day is emulated. Such an one Burr deemed a fitting sacrifice to appease his injured honor. Hamilton was accordingly drawn into the acceptance of a challenge, and of course fell, mortally wounded. But the indignation of the country was aroused in consequence against the slayer, who fled with all haste to avoid apprehension and a trial for murder.

For a time he sunk into merited obscurity. At length, his conduct showed that he had not been idle, though unobserved. In the autumn of 1806, his movements in the western country were such as to attract the attention of government. He had purchased and was building boats on the Ohio, and was engaging men to descend that river. His declared purpose was to form a settlement on the banks of the Washita, in Louisiana; but the character of the man, the nature of his preparations, and the incautious disclosures of his associates, led to the suspicion that his true object was either to gain possession of New-Orleans, and then establish a separate government for the country watered by the Mississippi and its branches—or to invade, from the territories of the United States, the rich Spanish province of Mexico. From the first moment of suspicion, he was closely watched by the agents of government. At Natchez, while on his way to New-Orleans, he was cited to appear before the Supreme Court of the Mississippi territory; but he had so enveloped his projects in secresy, that sufficient evidence to convict him could not be produced, and he was discharged. Hearing, however, that several persons suspected of being his accomplices had been arrested at New Orleans, and elsewhere, he fled in disguise from Natchez, but was apprehended at Tombigbee, and conveyed a prisoner to Richmond. Two indictments were found against him, one charging him with treason against the United States—the other with preparing and commencing an expedition against the dominions of Spain. In August, 1807, he was tried upon those indictments, before Chief Justice Marshall. Full evidence of his guilt not being exhibited, he was acquitted by the jury. The people, however, believed him guilty; and by their desertion and contempt, he was reduced to a condition of the most abject wretchedness. The ease with which his plans were defeated, demonstrated the strength of the government; and his fate will be an impressive warning to those who, in a free country, listen to the suggestions of criminal ambition.

During the first four years of Mr. Jefferson's rule, he continued in office the members of Mr. Adams' cabinet, with the exception of appointing James Madison, of Virginia, Secretary of State, and John Breckenridge, of Kentucky, Attorney General. In the course of his second term (extending to 1809), his official advisers were changed, with the exception of James Madison. George Clinton, of New York, was elected Vice President; Albert Gallatin, of Pennsylvania, was appointed Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, Secretary of War; Robert Smith, of Maryland, Secretary of the Navy; Gideon Granger, of

Connecticut, Post-Master General; and Cæsar A. Rodney, of Delaware Attorney General.

In 1803, Louisiana was purchased from the French government for sixteen millions of dollars. The title being given under Napoleon, and including nearly the whole vast region beyond the Mississippi, was called in question by the British: but the president, Mr. Jefferson, made immediate preparations for taking possession of the territory, and for correctly defining its boundaries, and for other purposes tending to the increase of knowledge and extension of the fields of science. Captains Lewis and Clarke, the former of whom was private secretary to the president, were selected as proper persons to head the expedition on this occasion. Never was an arduous undertaking accomplished with more ability and prudence. Accompanied by thirty-five persons, mostly soldiers, they embarked at St. Louis, in suitable boats, on the 16th of May, 1804, and ascended the Missouri to its stupendous falls, a distance of three thousand miles. Finding the season then too far advanced to attempt crossing the Rocky Mountains, they built a fort, named Mandan, wherein they wintered. Early in the succeeding April, they were again in motion, and having reached the crest of the great rocky chain, although impeded by its everlasting snows and suffering from want of provisions, they rapidly descended. After travelling four hundred miles thus, they reached the navigable waters of the Columbia; and following its course six hundred and forty miles further, were recompensed for all their toils and privations by hearing the sound of breakers from the ocean, and viewing with their glad eyes the Pacific. They wintered at the mouth of the river, and hastened back by the same route the following spring. They reached St. Louis on their return, in September, 1806, after an absence from all civilization of more than twenty-seven months, having travelled altogether seven thousand five hundred miles. Only one of the party, who was of a sickly constitution, had died.

The American government sent, in 1805, another expedition under Major Pike (afterward conspicuous for his bravery in the war of 1812), to trace the yet unknown head of the Mississippi. It was found in a direction almost due north, not rising from any great natural range, but in a flat marshy region, and passing through a number of little lakes, the chief of which, named Leech and Red Cedar, contend for the honour of giving birth to this noble American river. Its length, too, proved to be at the mutual junction a little less than half that of the Missouri, which, therefore, ought properly to rank as the main stream. Pike, on his return, was sent to explore the course and origin of the Arkansas and Red rivers. The former he found very broad, flowing through a country richly stocked with game, and having its source in the Rocky Mountains. He attempted then to descend the Red river, but entered by mistake on the Rio del Norte, and proceeding into the Mexican territory, was made prisoner by the Spaniards, but was well treated and soon after released.

Since the peace of 1783, Great Britain and the United States had each incessantly complained that the other had violated the spitulations contained in the treaty. The former was accused of having carried away negroes at the close of the revolutionary war; and of retaining in her possession certain military posts situated in the western wilderness, and in the limits of the United States—in consequence of which the Americans were deprived of their share of the fur trade, and the Indians incited to make incursions upon the frontier settlements. The latter were accused of preventing the loyalists from regaining possession of their estates, and British subjects from recovering debts contracted before the commencement of hostilities.

Now, however, a new and more pressing cause of disturbance arose between the two nations. Great Britain had always found it impossible

to man her numerous fleets by voluntary enlistments, and was, therefore, in the habit of levying by force her subjects and compelling them to serve as sailors on board her ships of war. Desertions taking place frequently under such a state of things, she claimed a right to search for her sailors, even on board of neutral vessels while traversing the ocean in pursuit of their lawful business. In the exercise of this pretended right, citizens of the United States were sometimes by mistake and sometimes by design, claimed and held as British sailors.

But not in this mode only were the rights of the United States invaded, and their interests sacrificed on the ocean. Owing to the extermination of the French navy by Great Britain, the commerce between France and the West Indies was almost exclusively carried on in American ships. To cut off France from this privilege also, British orders in council, dated May, 1806, declared all ports of consequence under the control of France to be in a state of blockade, though they were not at the time invested with a British fleet; and American vessels attempting to enter those ports were captured and condemned. In retaliation, Bonaparte issued his Berlin decree, of November, 1806, proclaiming the British islands in a state of blockade, and of course authorizing the capture of all neutral vessels attempting to trade with those islands. Not deeming this sufficient to prevent American vessels from trading with his enemy, the French emperor shortly thereafter issued another decree, from Milan, denouncing every neutral vessel which should submit to be searched or visited by any British cruizer, and confiscating all ships so submitting whenever found in any of his ports. By these measures of both nations the commerce of the United States was suddenly and most strangely made illegal; merchants of course suffered severely, and with united voice they loudly demanded of the government redress and protection from such violations of the laws of nations.

In June, 1807, an event occurred which for a time concentrated upon Great Britain the whole weight of popular indignation. The frigate Chesapeake, an American thirty-six gun ship, refusing to allow a search on board her for British deserters, was fired into by the Leopard of fifty guns, and three men killed and eighteen wounded. The Chesapeake being unprepared for action, struck her colors, and was boarded by a detachment from the Leopard, when the crew were mustered and four men forcibly carried away as British deserters. The truth upon investigation was ascertained to be, that three of them were citizens of the United States, who had been impressed by the British and afterward escaped from their service. One of these men they hanged, another died in prison, and the remaining two were subsequently returned to the decks of the Chesapeake, whence they had been taken.

It is true this act was promptly disavowed by the authorities at London; but as they delayed to make reparation, and refused to give any guarantee that the like should not transpire again, the hostile feelings which had been aroused in the breasts of the community were neither extinguished nor appeased. The president accordingly recommended to Congress the passage of a law laying an indefinite embargo, which was thereupon enacted. He also, by proclamation, prohibited all British ships of war from continuing in or entering the harbors of the United States; and in these measures he was fully justified by the public sentiment, with perhaps one exception. In the New England states the embargo occasioned discontent and clamor. The members of the federal party, who were more numerous there than in any other quarter of the Union, with one consent pronounced it a measure unwise and oppressive. Public meetings were accordingly called, in different parts of the country, and counter resolutions passed; alternately sustaining and denouncing the acts of government.

James Madison was elected President in 1808, and took his seat on the 4th of March following; George Clinton was re-elected to the Vice-Presidency, and filled that office with ability up to the time of his death, April 20th, 1812. Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, was elected Vice-President for Mr. Madison's second term, and also died in office, November 23d, 1814, not long after his installation. Mr. Madison's first term of office commenced with James Monroe, of Virginia, as Secretary of State; Albert Gallatin, of Pennsylvania, still at the head of the Treasury; Paul Hamilton, of South Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; General William Eustis, of Massachusetts, Secretary of War; and a continuation of Mr. Granger, of Connecticut, as chief of the Post-Office department—and Mr. Rodney, of Delaware, as Attorney General.

Changes were presently made, however, and before the close of the executive's second term, his cabinet stood as follows:—James Monroe, Secretary of State; Alexander J. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; B. W. Crowninshield, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy; William H. Crawford, of Georgia, Secretary of War; William Pinckney, of Maryland, Attorney General; Return J. Meigs, of Ohio, Post-Master General.

In March, 1809, Congress repealed the embargo, and instituted a law prohibiting all intercourse with France and Great Britain, until the offensive edicts of either should be revoked. In revenge for this, another decree was issued by Bonaparte, at Rambouillet, directing that all American vessels then in the ports of France, or that might afterward enter, should be directly seized and confiscated. Expostulation in such case might seem vain; but General Armstrong having been despatched as American envoy to the court of France, he was assured by the minister of state of Napoleon, that the obnoxious edicts would be fully revoked on the 1st of November ensuing. Confiding in this assurance, the president, on the 2d of November, issued his proclamation declaring that all intercourse with Great Britain was prohibited, while an unrestrained commerce with France was allowed. This conciliatory movement was hailed with satisfaction alike by the French and American people—though it has been strongly suspected the intention of Napoleon in allowing it, was only to involve America in a war with Great Britain—thereby materially to assist him in his design of universal conquest. It was on the occasion of this arrangement, that the great soldier of fortune is said to have descended so far from his loftiness as to indulge in a *bon mot*. The former American minister sent to negotiate with him, was a little hard of hearing: the present one quite imperfect in his mastery of the French language. "These Americans are a queer people," said he, "first they send me a deaf minister, and then they send me a dumb one."

Great Britain having expressed a willingness to repeal her orders whenever France should repeal her decrees, she was now called upon, by the American envoy, to fulfil her engagement. She objected, that the French decrees could not be considered as repealed, a letter from the minister of state not being, for that purpose, a document of sufficient authority. In answer to this objection, proof was presented that the French admiralty courts considered them as repealed, and that no American vessel, although many had entered the ports of France, had been subjected to their provisions. Great Britain, however, still attempted to enforce her orders. For this purpose she had stationed ships of war before the principal harbours of the United States. Merchantmen departing or returning were all boarded, searched, and many of them sent to British ports as legal prizes. Impressments, too, were frequent; and the British officers, entertaining exalted ideas of their naval strength, and holding in contempt the republican flag, exhibited on all occasions an extreme insolence of behaviour. In one instance, however, their aggression was deservedly

punished. Commodore Rogers, sailing in the frigate President, met in the evening a vessel on the coast of Virginia. He hailed, but instead of receiving an answer, was hailed in turn, and a shot was fired which struck the mainmast of the President. The fire was instantly returned by the commodore, and continued for a few minutes, when finding that his antagonist was of inferior force, and that her guns were almost silenced, he desisted. On hailing again, an answer was given, that the ship was the British sloop of war Little Belt, of eighteen guns. Thirty-two of her men were killed and wounded, and the ship was much disabled.

In the summer of 1811, an earnest and final attempt was made by the American government to arrange satisfactorily with Great Britain the subject of impressment, and other points mooted between them. No approach toward a reconciliation could be made. It was proven that not less than nine hundred American merchant vessels had been seized by British cruizers and confiscated, since the year 1803. It was also shown that an agent had been employed by the British authorities in Canada, in time of peace, to spread disaffection between the states, and if possible to bring about a division of the Union. The patience of the nation was exhausted—forbearance would no longer do. Early in November, 1811, President Madison called Congress together, and laid before them the state of foreign relations, recommending that the Republic should be placed in an attitude to maintain by force its wounded honour and essential interests. The representatives of the people determined to act in accordance with the views of the president. Laws were therefore enacted, providing for the increase of the regular army to thirty-five thousand men; for the augmentation of the naval establishment; for arming the militia, and for borrowing eleven millions of dollars.

About this time events occurred which turned the public attention for an instant in a new direction. The Indian tribes residing near the remote lakes and the sources of the Mississippi had for some years past displayed symptoms of hostility, murdering a number of whites and robbing others. General Harrison, with a small force, was sent into their territories, instructed to negotiate if possible, but to fight if necessary. On the 6th of November he arrived at Tippecanoe, their principal town, where he was met by Indian messengers, with whom an agreement was made that hostilities should not take place before the next morning, and that then an amicable conference should be held. Just before daybreak, the savages, in violation of their engagement, made a sudden and furious attack upon the troops in their encampment. Nothing but the precaution of sleeping in order of battle, on their arms, saved them from total defeat. A dreadful slaughter was made; but the savages were finally repulsed, dispersed, and their town laid waste. A strong belief was entertained, founded upon credible testimony, that they had been incited to hostility by British agents stationed among them.

Congress continued to be employed until the 20th of May, in making preparations for war, though still cherishing a hope that a change of policy in Europe would render unnecessary an appeal to arms. On that day the Hornet arrived from London, bringing information that no prospect existed of a favourable change. On the 1st of June, the president sent a message to Congress, recounting the wrongs still unatoned for which Great Britain had inflicted, and submitting the question whether the United States should continue to endure them or resort to war? The message was considered with closed doors—and on the 18th an act was passed declaring war against Great Britain. The vote stood, in the House of Representatives, 79 to 49; in the Senate, 19 to 13.

CHAPTER III.

THE WAR OF 1812–1814.

The people of the United States remembered with pride, the patriotism and bravery exhibited by their army in the revolutionary war. A long period of peace and prosperity had increased their confidence in their own strength; and the belief was generally entertained, that victory over the same foe would now be so much the more certainly and easily gained, as the nation was more rich and populous. Perhaps they did not reflect that peace had impaired the military energies of the republic, while their enemy, by constant exercise in arms, had acquired not only additional strength, but greater skill to use and apply it.

From the veteran officers who had acquired fame in the former conflict, a selection was made to fill the principal posts in the new army. Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was appointed major-general and commander-in-chief: he was at the battle of Bunker Hill, and in the expedition to Quebec; and had distinguished himself on other occasions. Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, was also appointed a major-general; and Wilkinson, Hull, Hampton, and Bloomfield, were among the brigadiers. With such names at the head of their forces, the people might seem to an extent justified in expecting soon to see brave deeds enrolled on the escutcheon of their country's fame. Yet strangely different were the first results.

At the time of the declaration of war, General Hull was also governor of the Michigan territory, of which Detroit was the capital. On the 12th of July, with two thousand regulars and volunteers, he crossed the river dividing the United States from Canada. On the same day, he addressed a proclamation to the Canadians, tendering them the blessings of civil and religious liberty, and assuring them, in a lofty tone, "that his force was sufficient to break down all opposition," and yet was but the van-guard of one much greater. It appeared to be his purpose to attack Malden (the strongest fortress in Upper Canada, and then but weakly guarded), and thence proceed to Montreal. Had the attack been instantly made, success would have undoubtedly crowned it: but a month was wasted in ruinous delay, allowing the ardour of the troops to cool, and Malden to be reinforced. Distrust and contempt took the place of confidence in the breasts of the Canadians; and at this critical moment information was received that Mackinaw, an American post of importance above Detroit, had been surprised, and had surrendered to a large body of British and Indians, who were rushing down in numbers sufficient to overwhelm the American forces. Panic-struck, General Hull hastened back to Detroit.

General Brock, the commander at Malden, pursued him with a force superior in number, but composed chiefly of militia and Indians. On the 14th of August, he erected batteries opposite Detroit. The next day he began a cannonade upon the American fortifications, which was returned with precision and effect. On the 16th, the enemy crossed the river, taking post about three miles above the city. Meeting with no resistance, and hearing that some of the American troops were absent, General Brock resolved to march directly forward and assault the fort. The troops, cool and undaunted, awaited in good order the approach of the enemy, anticipating an easy victory. To the astonishment of all, General Hull forbade the artillery to fire, and hung out a white flag in token of a wish to capitulate. A correspondence between the two generals was immediately opened, which ended in the surrender of the army and of the territory of Michigan.

It is impossible to describe the indignation of the soldiers and citizens,

when they saw themselves thus delivered, by the authority of one man, into the power of an enemy whom they supposed they might easily have conquered. Even the women were indignant at so shameful a submission. And the same feelings pervaded the entire Union, as all had looked in this quarter with the most confident anticipations of perfect success. On being exchanged, General Hull was arrested and brought to trial, charged with treason, cowardice, and neglect of duty. The court-martial not having legal jurisdiction in treasonable matters, declined giving judgment on the first charge; but he was found guilty on the other charges, and sentenced to be shot. The president, however, in consideration of former good conduct, and the age of the prisoner, remitted the punishment of death.

The people of Ohio and Kentucky were alarmed. Nearly ten thousand citizens made a tender of their services—and a part of them were placed under the command of General W. H. Harrison and marched toward the territory of Michigan. But great and numerous were the difficulties encountered; the volunteers were unwilling to submit to the wholesome restraints of discipline; and winter arrived before any important undertaking could be accomplished. Several incursions were made into the country of the savages, who, owing to the influence of British agents and a fanatic termed the prophet, had become almost universally hostile. For the purpose of invading Canada in another quarter, an army of regulars and militia were assembled on the northern frontier of New-York. It was far less numerous than the government had anticipated. So happy was the condition of even the poorest class of American citizens, that few could be induced to enlist as soldiers. And in some of the states the plausible doctrine was maintained, that the officers of the general government have no power over the militia until called into regular service and consigned to their authority by the state executive; and that even then they cannot be compelled to march beyond the boundary of the republic. Several governors actually withheld their militia when called for by the president, and thus diminished the amount of one species of force upon which the general government had relied.

General Van Rensselaer, of the New-York militia, being the senior officer on that frontier, had the command of these troops, which were called the army of the centre. His head-quarters were at Lewistown, on the river Niagara, and on the opposite was Queenstown, a fortified British post. The militia displaying great eagerness to be led against the enemy, the general determined to cross over to Queenstown. The first attempt was defeated by tempestuous weather. On the 13th of October, a party led by Colonel Van Rensselaer effected a landing, although opposed by a British force stationed on the bank. The colonel was severely wounded, but the troops, under captains Ogilvie and Wool, advanced to storm the fort. They gained possession, but at the moment of success, General Brock arrived from a neighbouring post, with a reinforcement of six hundred men. These, although the most numerous, were gallantly driven back by the American troops. In attempting to rally them, General Brock and his aid-de-camp were both killed. General Van Rensselaer, who had previously crossed over, now returned to hasten the embarkation of the rear division. But those who had lately shown so much eagerness to meet the enemy, now utterly refused to pass beyond the national boundary! He entreated and remonstrated, but in vain. Meanwhile the enemy, having received another reinforcement, advanced to attack the Americans in the fort. A desperate and bloody conflict ensued, of which the militia at Lewistown were calm spectators—making a constitutional privilege their plea for cowardice. In the end, the British were completely victorious: so that of above one thousand men, who had crossed into Canada, but few effected their escape.

Soon after this disaster, General Van Rensselaer retired from the service, and was succeeded by General Alexander Smyth, of Virginia. In a turgid address to the "men of New-York," he announced that in a few days he should retrieve the lost honour of the country, by planting the American standard in Canada, and invited them to share in the danger and glory of the enterprise. His force was increased speedily to four thousand five hundred men: and the morning of the 28th of November, assigned as the time for crossing. The time came, but strangely enough the troops could not be got ready to pass over. Another day was appointed, and when that arrived, it was found the general had changed his plan of operations. A council of war was called, the invasion of Canada was postponed, and the troops were ordered into winter quarters. The blame of these failures was attributed by the soldiers to their commander; and so highly were they exasperated, that for several days his life was in danger from their fury.

The army of the north, which was under the immediate command of General Dearborn, was stationed at Greenbush, near Albany, and at Plattsburgh, on Lake Champlain. From the latter post, a detachment marched a short distance into Canada, surprised a small body of British and Indians, and destroyed a considerable quantity of public stores. Other movements were anxiously expected by the people; but after the misfortunes at Detroit and Niagara, the general deemed it inexpedient to engage in any important enterprise: and thus ended the campaign of 1812. Although on many occasions extraordinary gallantry had been displayed, yet nothing was accomplished, and the losses sustained were numerous and heavy. Those who approved the declaration of war, felt disappointed, mortified, and dejected. Those who were opposed to it, assumed a bolder tone of censure, and evinced a more determined spirit of opposition.

While, however, defeat and disgrace attended the American arms on land, far different results were witnessed on the ocean. On that great field where were committed the offences which led to the war, they gained a rich harvest of victory and glory. Upon the declaration of war, the American officers and seamen were filled with ardour to avenge the sufferings of their impressed fellow-citizens, and to vindicate the honour of the republican flag. Such ships of war as were ready for sea, immediately sailed in search of the enemy. On the 19th of August, Captain Hull, who commanded the Constitution, of forty-four guns, descried a British frigate; his crew, giving three cheers, requested to be placed alongside of their antagonist. For three quarters of an hour the latter endeavoured, by skilful manœuvring, to obtain the advantage of position. Defeated in this, she advanced toward the Constitution, firing broadsides at intervals. When she had approached within half pistol shot, a tremendous cannonade burst upon her from the American frigate. In thirty minutes, every mast and nearly every spar being shot away, she struck her flag. She was found to be the Guerriere, of thirty-eight guns, commanded by Captain Dacres, who had been cruizing in quest of an American frigate. At her mast-head she had displayed her name, and a flag upon which was the taunting inscription, "No Little Belt." Of her crew, fifty were killed and sixty-four wounded; and the vessel itself was so much injured that it was set fire to and blown up. The damage sustained by the Constitution was very slight; of her crew, but seven were killed and seven wounded; and the ship in a few hours was ready for another action. This battle was the more remarkable, as Great Britain had not for thirty years previous lost a frigate in any conflict with a similar equality of force. Congress voted fifteen thousand dollars to the crew of the Constitution, as a recompense for the loss of their prize, and the officers were promoted.

This was only the first of a series of naval victories. On the 18th of October, Captain Jones, in the Wasp, of eighteen guns, captured the Frolic, of twenty-two, after a bloody conflict of three quarters of an hour. In this action, the Americans obtained a victory over a force decidedly superior. On their part, but eight were killed and wounded; on that of the enemy, about eighty; the Frolic fired as she rose upon the water, so that her shot was either thrown away or but touched the rigging of the American; the Wasp, on the contrary, fired as she descended; and thus, at every discharge, struck the hull of her antagonist. On boarding the British vessel, the surprise of the Americans can scarcely be imagined. They beheld only three officers, and the seaman at the helm. The deck was slippery with blood, presenting a most awful scene of havoc and distress. The colours were still flying—there being no one left to haul them down. Neither of the vessels, however, arrived in the United States. They were both captured, before evening, by a British ship of the line.

On the 25th, the frigate United States, commanded by Captain Decatur, encountered and captured the British frigate Macedonian. The former carried a few guns the most, but the disparity of loss was astonishingly great. On the part of the enemy, a hundred and four were killed and wounded: on the part of the Americans, but eleven! The United States brought her prize safely to New-York. The conduct of the American seamen on this occasion, drew forth a species of praise from the enemy, not less grateful than that experienced from their friends. All the private property belonging to the officers and crew of the Macedonian was restored, with the most perfect exactness, and they were treated with the greatest humanity and politeness.

A fourth naval battle was fought, and a fourth victory gained, on the 29th of December. On that day, the Constitution, of forty-four guns, then commanded by Captain Bainbridge, captured the British frigate Java, of thirty-eight. The combat was continued with the utmost obstinacy, for more than three hours. The Java was reduced to a wreck; of her crew one hundred and sixty-one were killed and wounded; of that of the Constitution thirty-four. General Hislop, governor of Bombay, having in charge a body of troops, was passenger on board the Java; that officer presented Captain Bainbridge with an elegant sword, as a slight testimonial for his gentlemanly conduct after the action.

On the lakes, some small operations were this season successfully conducted by the Americans. One in particular, may be mentioned: Lieutenant Elliott, on Lake Erie, with great credit to himself projected an undertaking by which he captured two British armed vessels—the Detroit and the Caledonia. This was merely the precursor of other and more brilliant affairs, shortly to come off upon that and the adjacent inland seas.

The exertions of Commodore Chauncey, in creating a fleet upon the northern lakes, produced the most beneficial results. In the beginning of October, the Americans had not a single armed vessel on Lake Erie; and their whole force on Lake Ontario was a brig carrying sixteen guns. On the first of November, the commodore had under his command six vessels, mounting altogether thirty-two guns; and although not equal in strength to their opponents, they managed to capture the Prince Regent schooner of eighteen guns, and put to flight the Royal George of twenty-six.

These successive victories were peculiarly gratifying to the nation. They were gained in the midst of disasters on land, and by that class of citizens whose rights had been more specially violated; and they were gained over a people claiming to be lords of the sea, whom long-continued success had rendered haughty and insolent, and who had confidently boasted that the whole American navy would soon be swept from the ocean. A number of British merchantmen were likewise captured by the

American navy: and privateers issuing from almost every port, many of them bearing flags inscribed "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights," were remarkably successful. The number of prizes made during the first seven months of the war exceeded five hundred; upwards of fifty of them were armed, carrying nearly six hundred guns. More than three thousand prisoners were taken.

Various reasons have been assigned for the continued success of the American arms upon the water. The British themselves assert it to be owing to the superior dimensions of their enemy's vessels; but this cause is not by any means sufficient to prove the fact, as all historical evidence contradicts it. The British were formerly almost everywhere victorious, in spite of the superior force of a few guns. Perhaps the truth may be arrived at, when we consider the manner in which different navies are in the habit of aiming their war-missiles. The French throw all their shot among the enemy's rigging, thus hoping to disable him: the English aim directly for the decks, with the intention to destroy life; but the Americans pursue a system different from either—pouring all their fury against the hull of their antagonist. Thus a single broadside frequently opens their enemy's sides to the torrents of the ocean, and compels the drowning foe to strike his colours.

In the autumn of this year (1812), the quadrennial period for the election of president and vice-president again recurred. The candidates were, on one side, the incumbent James Madison, of Virginia, and Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts: on the other, De Witt Clinton, of New-York, and Jared Ingersoll, of Pennsylvania. Those who opposed the war, were in favour of the latter candidates: those who were called democrats, supported the former. Great exertions were made by the partizans of the opposing candidates, and the passions of the people, especially in the middle and northern states, were highly excited. Of the electoral votes given, Mr. Madison received one hundred and twenty-eight, and Mr. Gerry one hundred and thirty-one, and were elected. Mr. Clinton received eighty-nine, and Mr Ingersoll eighty-six.

At the commencement of the session of Congress near the close of 1812, the president, in his message, stated that he had received official information of the repeal of the orders in council; and that two propositions for an armistice had been made to him, both of which he had rejected, as they could not have been accepted without conceding to Great Britain the right of impressment. The rejection of these propositions was approved by the national representatives, who, instead of abandoning the ground they had taken, adopted more vigorous measures for the prosecution of the war. The bounty and the wages of the soldiers were increased. The president was authorized to raise twenty additional regiments of infantry, to issue treasury notes, and to borrow money. Provision was also made for building four ships of the line, six frigates, and as many vessels of war on the great lakes as the public service might require.

So great was the desire of the citizens of the western country to regain possession of the territory of Michigan, that in order to effect it, General Harrison resolved to undertake a winter campaign. Information was received that a small body of British and Indians were stationed at Frenchtown, a village on the river Raisin, not far from Detroit. General Winchester proceeded in advance, with a portion of the western army, and attacked and entirely dispersed the enemy. The Americans encamped near the field of battle, a part of them being protected by close garden pickets: yet, although near an enemy's fort, but little precaution was taken to prevent a surprise. Early in the morning of the 22nd of January, they were attacked by a large force of British and Indians, the former commanded by Colonel Proctor, the latter by the chiefs Roundhead and Split-log. The troops in the open field were thrown into disor-

der, and General Winchester and other officers in vain endeavoured to rally them. They turned and fled, but in attempting to escape were mostly killed by the Indians. The General and Colonel Lewis were made prisoners. The troops behind the pickets maintained the contest with undaunted bravery. At length Colonel Proctor assured General Winchester, that if the remainder of the Americans would immediately surrender, they should be protected from massacre; but otherwise he would set fire to the village, and would not be responsible for the conduct of the savages. Intimidated by this threat, General Winchester sent an order to the troops to surrender, which they obeyed. Colonel Proctor, leaving the wounded without a guard, marched back immediately to Malden. The Indians accompanied them a few miles, but returned early the next morning. Then followed deeds of horror. The wounded officers were dragged from the houses, and killed and scalped in the streets. The buildings were set on fire, and many who attempted to escape from them were forced back into the flames. Others were put to death by the tomahawk, and left shockingly mangled in the highway. But the infamy of this butchery should not fall upon the perpetrators alone—it must rest equally upon those who instigated them to hostility—those by whose side they fought, and who were able, and who were bound by a solemn engagement, to restrain them.

The battle and massacre at Frenchtown clothed Kentucky and Ohio in mourning. Other volunteers, indignant at the treachery and cruelty of their foes, hastened to the aid of Harrison. Having twelve hundred men, he marched to the rapids of the Miami, where he erected a fort which was called Fort Meigs, in honour of the governor of Ohio. On the first of May, it was invested by a large number of Indians, and by a party of British troops from Malden, the whole commanded by Col. Proctor. Five days afterwards, General Clay, at the head of twelve hundred Kentuckians, made an attempt to raise the siege. Dividing his force into several parties, and making an impetuous onset, he drove the besiegers from their works. His troops supposing the victory complete, and disregarding the orders of their commander, dispersed into the woods; which the enemy observing, returned from their flight, and obtained an easy victory. Of the Americans, two or three hundred escaped into the fort; about three hundred were killed or made prisoners—and the remainder fled to the nearest settlements. The loss of the enemy, was very considerable.

The fort continued to be defended with bravery and skill. The Indians, unaccustomed to seiges, became weary and discontented; and on the 8th of May, notwithstanding the entreaties of their chief, Tecumseh, they deserted their allies. On the 9th, the enemy, despairing of success, made a precipitate retreat. General Harrison, leaving General Clay in command, returned to Ohio for reinforcements; but in this quarter active operations were not resumed until a squadron had been built and prepared for action on Lake Erie. At Sackett's Harbour, on the northern frontier, a body of troops had been assembled under the command of General Dearborn; and great exertions were made, by Commodore Chauncey, to build and equip a squadron on Lake Ontario, sufficiently powerful to contend with that of the enemy. By the 25th of April, the naval preparations were so far completed that the general, and seventeen hundred troops, were conveyed across the lake to the attack of York (now Toronto), the capital of Upper Canada.

On the 27th, an advanced party, led on by Brigadier-general Pike, who was born in a camp and bred a soldier from his birth, landed, although opposed at the water's edge by a superior force. After a short but severe conflict, the enemy were driven to their fortifications. The rest of the troops having landed, the whole party pressed forward—carried the first battery by assault, and were moving towards the main works, when

the enemy's magazine, containing five hundred barrels of gunpowder, blew up, with a tremendous explosion, hurling upon the advancing troops immense quantities of stone and timber. Upwards of three hundred men were killed and wounded; their leader, the brave General Pike, was mortally wounded. He retained to the last, however, the spirit of a soldier and commander; "Move on, my brave fellows," was his first exclamation, "and avenge your general." With three cheers, in the midst of the carnage, they pressed forward, and speedily drove the enemy from all their intrenchments, and gained possession of the town. The British loss in men, amounted to seven hundred and eighty. The public property destroyed was very considerable; and that which was transferred uninjured to the Americans, was considered worth at least half a million of dollars. When the flag that had waved over the fort was brought to the dying General Pike, with an expression of triumph on his countenance he made signs for it to be placed under his head, and contentedly expired.

An attack on Fort George, and Fort Erie, unsuccessfully attempted the year before, was the next thing to be undertaken. Accordingly, on the morning of the 28th, generals Dearborn and Lewis embarked with their whole force, amounting to four thousand men. The advance, under Col. Scott, consisting of five hundred, were exposed in approaching the shore to incessant volleys of musketry, from a large body of regulars stationed in a ravine; yet they faltered not, and no sooner were they formed on the beach, than they were led to the charge and dispersed the enemy. Meanwhile the works on each side of the river were furiously engaged. Fort George being in a short time rendered untenable, the British laid trains to their magazines and hastily retired. The American light companies instantly took possession of the abandoned works—captains Hyndman and Stockton entering first, and extinguishing the fire intended to create the explosion. The former withdrew a match at the imminent hazard of his life. Before twelve o'clock, the whole of the fortifications in that quarter were surmounted by the American flag; the enemy having lost, in killed and wounded, above two hundred and fifty men, besides six hundred prisoners. Their antagonists had only thirty-nine killed, and a hundred and eight wounded.

A few days afterwards, it became known that a body of fifteen hundred English, under General Vincent, had encamped on the heights at the head of Burlington bay. A superior force was therefore dispatched, under generals Chandler and Winder, to reconnoitre, and to cut off the escape of the enemy. Strangely enough, this force was surprised in the night with an onset from the British, the sentinels being bayonetted on their posts without giving an alarm. A complete rout ensued, in which both the American generals were taken prisoners. The British finding two pieces of artillery limbered, drove them off, hastily overturned the others, and made good their retreat with but little loss. This misfortune to the republicans was soon followed by another. Lieutenant-colonel Boerstler, having been sent with five hundred men to disperse a body of the enemy collected at the Beaver Dams, was surrounded, and the whole detachment made prisoners.

General Dearborn having for some time laboured under a severe indisposition, now retired from service, assigning Fort George to the care of Col. Boyd. The American army soon afterwards experienced a severe reverse, by an irrational attack on a British party stationed at Le Cosse's House, about seventeen miles from the fort; and on the 8th of July, a general skirmish ensued, without any advantage remaining on either side. From the peculiar character of Indian warfare, and the constant harassing sustained by the Americans, Col. Boyd deemed it prudent to adopt measures for guarding against it: the services of the Seneca nation were

therefore accepted, and about four hundred warriors, commanded by the chief Corn-planter, were put under arms.

While the greater part of the American army was thus employed in Canada, the British made an attack upon the important post of Sackett's Harbour. On the 27th of May, their squadron appeared before the town. Alarm guns instantly assembled the citizens of the neighbourhood. General Brown, of the New-York militia, commanded in chief, his whole force amounting to about one thousand men. By his orders a slight breastwork was hastily thrown up, at the only place where the enemy could land. Behind this he placed the militia, and the regulars under Colonel Backus formed the second line. On the morning of the 29th, one thousand British troops landed from the squadron, and advanced towards the breastwork. The militia, seized with a sudden panic, fled in confusion, Colonel Mills, in a vain attempt to rally them, being mortally wounded. The regulars, after a spirited resistance, were compelled to retire towards the town; but in their retreat they took possession of the houses on the road, and from these coverts they poured so destructive a fire upon the British column, that it halted and fell back. General Brown, by a stratagem, converted this slight check into a precipitate flight: collecting the panic-struck militia, he directed their course along a road which, while it led from the village, appeared to the British commander to lead to the place of landing. Perceiving them marching with great speed, he supposed that their object was to cut off his retreat, and he re-embarked so hastily as to leave behind most of his wounded. General Brown, in recompense for his services, was appointed a brigadier in the regular army.

Meanwhile, upon the coast, a distressing and predatory war was carried on, by large detachments from the powerful navy of Great Britain. One squadron, stationed in Delaware Bay, captured and burned every merchant vessel which came within its reach. The inhabitants of Lewistown, in the state of Delaware, having refused to sell provisions to the enemy, the village was bombarded, and several attempts were made to land—but they were defeated by the militia. In Chesapeake Bay, another and more powerful squadron had arrived, early in the spring. It was under the command of Admiral Cockburn—a notorious and disgraceful person, whose name will ever be considered a stain among the officers of his country. He, disregarding the honourable modes of warfare, directed his efforts principally against unoffending citizens and peaceful villages. Instead of seeking to advance the interests of Great Britain in any manner, he sought simply to stir up enmity and hatred wherever he went, and planted a spirit of revenge which in many sections rankles still. The farm houses and gentlemen's seats near the shore were plundered, and the cattle driven away or in mere wantonness slaughtered. Frenchtown, Havre de Grace, Fredericktown, and Georgetown, were sacked and burned. Norfolk was only saved from a similar fate, by the determined bravery of a small force stationed on Craney Island, in the harbour. A furious attack was made upon Hampton, which, notwithstanding the gallant resistance of its small garrison, was captured, and the unfortunate inhabitants suffered all which a brutal and unrestrained soldiery could inflict.

The ocean, in the meantime, had been the theatre of sanguinary conflicts, in which the victors gained untarnished laurels. Captain Lawrence, in the sloop of war Hornet, discovering in the neutral port of San Salvador a British sloop of war of superior force, challenged her commander to meet him at sea. The challenge being declined, Captain Lawrence blockaded the port, until forced by a ship of the line to retire. Soon after, meeting an English brig of ten guns, he captured her, and with her above $20,000 in specie. The next day the Hornet steered for Demerara, and shortly encountered a large British national armed brig, the Peacock.

Captain Lawrence instantly engaged her, and the combat continued for fifteen minutes with great fury—when the enemy struck her colours, and displayed at the same time a signal of distress. The Americans instantly endeavoured now to save the vanquished; but such was the shattered condition of the Peacock, that in spite of all their efforts to rescue her seamen, it could be but partially effected—she went down, carrying with her nine British sailors and three of the brave Americans who were endeavouring to assist them. In the battle, the loss of the Hornet was but one killed and two wounded—that of the Peacock was never ascertained.

On his return to the United States, Captain Lawrence was promoted to the command of the frigate Chesapeake, then in the harbour of Boston. For several weeks the British frigate Shannon, of equal force but having a selected crew, had been cruizing before the port; and Captain Brooke, her commander, had announced his wish to meet, in single combat, an American frigate. Inflamed by this challenge, Captain Lawrence, although his crew were just enlisted, and his officers were strangers to him and to each other, set sail, on the first of June, in pursuit of the Shannon. Toward evening on the same day, they met, and engaged instantly, with unexampled fury. In a very few minutes, and in quick succession, the sailing-master of the Chesapeake was killed, and Captain Lawrence and three lieutenants were severely wounded; her rigging was so cut to pieces that she fell on board the Shannon, her chest of arms blew up, and Captain Lawrence, receiving a second and mortal wound, was carried below. At this instant, the position of the ships being favourable, Captain Brooke, at the head of his marines, gallantly boarded the Chesapeake; when, every officer who could take command being killed or wounded, resistance ceased, and the American flag was struck by the enemy.

The victory, however, was not achieved without loss. Of the crew of the Shannon, twenty-four were killed and fifty-six wounded. Of that of the Chesapeake, forty-eight were killed and nearly one hundred wounded. When the intrepid Lawrence learned the fate of his ship, he became delirious with excess of mental and bodily suffering. His proud spirit was broken; and during the four days he continued to live, almost the only words he uttered, were, "Don't give up the ship!"—an expression which has since been consecrated by his countrymen. Captain Lawrence and Lieutenant Ludlow were both interred by the British at Halifax, with every honour—civil, naval, and military. Subsequently, a passport being obtained from the gentlemanly commander on that station, Commodore Hardy, the remains of the two officers were brought to the United States, by Mr. Crowninshield, of Salem, in his own barge, manned by twelve masters of vessels.

Great were the exultations of the government party in London, on the news of this action. Victories over the frigates of other nations were occurrences too common to excite emotion; but the capture of an American frigate was considered a glorious epoch in the naval history of Great Britain. Captain Brooke received the honour of knighthood, and altogether the rewards and honours bestowed upon him were such as had never before been received but by the conqueror of a squadron. These demonstrations of triumph were inadvertent confessions of American superiority; and they were, to the vanquished themselves, a species of triumph, and a source of consolation.

On the 4th of August, another American vessel was captured by the British. The Argus sloop of war had that misfortune; she was cruizing in the British channel, committing depredations upon the enemy's shipping, when several men-of-war were sent in quest of her. The Pelican, a vessel of her own class, but of slightly superior force, descried and encountered her; at the first broadside, Captain Allen, of the Argus, fell, severely wounded; Lieutenant Watson, on whom the command devolved,

was next rendered unfit for service; midshipmen Delphy and Edwards, both died of their wounds—and after a severe and prolonged action of above three hours, the vessel surrendered.

Shortly after this, victory turned again in favour of the republicans. The American brig Enterprize, commanded by Lieutenant Burroughs, met, when a few days out on a cruize, the British brig Boxer, of the same or a more available force. Here, again, the superior manœuvring of the Americans was made manifest: the Enterprize lost but one man killed and thirteen wounded; while the loss of the Boxer was much greater. Both commanders, however, were slain; Captain Blythe, of the Boxer, being killed, while Lieutenant Burroughs was the one lost by the Americans. They were buried side by side, due honours being rendered, in Portland, Maine.

The events of the war again call our attention to the northwestern frontier. While each nation was busily employed in equipping a squadron on Lake Erie, General Clay remained inactive at Fort Meigs. About the last of July, a large number of British and Indians appeared before the fort, hoping to entice the garrison to a general action in the field. After waiting a few days without succeeding, they decamped, and proceeded to Fort Stephenson, on the river Sandusky. This fort was little more than a picketing surrounded by a ditch; and the garrison consisted of but one hundred and sixty men, who were commanded by Major Croghan, a youth of twenty-one. On the 1st of August, it was invested by five hundred regulars and eight hundred Indians. After a cannonade, which continued two days, the enemy, in the evening, supposing a breach had been made, advanced to assault the works. Anticipating this, Major Croghan had planted a six pounder, the only piece of cannon in the fort, in a position to enfilade the ditch. It was loaded with grape shot and slugs, and was discharged the instant the assailants arrived before it. The British commander and many of his men were killed, and many others severely wounded. The attack was again renewed, and they were again as fatally repulsed; when the remainder retreated in haste and disorder to their former position, and at dawn of day retired to Malden. The youthful Croghan, for his valour and good conduct, was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel; and he and his brave companions received the thanks of Congress. To complete the triumph of the victor, the ladies of Chilicothe presented him with an elegant sword.

In the meantime, by the exertions of Commodore Perry, an American squadron had been prepared for service on Lake Erie. It consisted of nine small vessels, carrying in all fifty-four guns. A British squadron had also been built and equipped, under the superintendence of Commodore Barclay; this fleet consisted of six vessels, mounting sixty-three guns. Commodore Perry, immediately sailing, offered battle to his adversary. On the 10th of September, the British commander, having wind in favour, left the harbour of Malden to accept that offer. In a few hours the wind shifted, giving the Americans the advantage. Perry, forming the line of battle, hoisted his flag, on which were inscribed the words of the dying Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship!" Loud huzzas from all the vessels, proclaimed the animation with which this motto inspired their patriotic crews. About noon the firing commenced; but the wind being light, the Lawrence, the commodore's flag ship, was the only American vessel that could, at first, engage in close action. For two hours she contended alone with two vessels, each nearly her equal in force. All but seven of her crew were either killed or wounded, and she, by the damage she had received, was rendered wholly unmanageable. The wind springing up, Captain Elliott was enabled to bring his vessel, the Niagara, into action. To this ship Commodore Perry, sailing in an open boat through the thickest of the fire, transferred his flag. Again the combat raged with undi-

minished fury. In a short time, one of the British vessels surrendered, and soon after another; and the rest of the American squadron now joining in the action, the victory was rendered decisive and complete. At four o'clock, the brave and fortunate commander despatched to General Harrison, at Fort Meigs, this laconic epistle: "We have met the enemy and they are ours."

Great was the joy which this brilliant victory occasioned throughout the Union. That it was achieved over a superior force—that it was the first ever gained over a squadron—that it was entirely decisive—and that it opened a way to the recovery of all that had been lost by the defeat of the imbecile General Hull—were circumstances which threw every other victory into the shade, and cast the brightest lustre upon the characters of the heroes who had gained it. At every place which he visited, the gallant Perry received the most flattering proofs of a nation's gratitude and love.

The Americans were now masters of the lake; but a part of their territory was yet in possession of the British, which General Harrison immediately set about recovering. The vessels conveyed him and his troops (amounting to about seven thousand men) across the lake to Amherstburgh, from whence they proceeded to occupy Detroit and Fort Malden, which they did without opposition, the British general having evacuated the latter place and destroyed the stores. The enemy had passed Detroit on their retreat, and ascended the river Thames to the Moravian villages, where they encamped. They were pursued by General Harrison with three thousand five hundred picked troops, consisting of Colonel Johnson's mounted regiment, Colonel Ball's dragoons, and Governor Shelby's Kentucky volunteers. On the 5th of October they were overtaken and forced into battle; when the Americans, greatly outnumbering the enemy, were perfectly triumphant. But the death on this occasion of the chief Tecumseh, who was the most subtle, brave, eloquent, and formidable of Indian warriors, was without doubt a more completely irreparable loss that the British had yet sustained. He was better able to concentrate, command, and guide sagaciously the savage forces, than any warrior who had preceded him. It is said that he met his fate under the following circumstances: Colonel Johnson, of Kentucky, had resolved if possible to engage him; dressed, therefore, in a showy uniform, and mounted upon a large white horse, he cut his way through the melée directly to where the chief was encouraging his people—who were then fighting with more indomitable and obstinate courage than had yet been witnessed in them—and endeavoured to attract his attention. The chief turning, discharged his rifle at the approaching foe, and drew his tomahawk with the intention to dispatch him at once. Covered with wounds and blood, the colonel still approached—when Tecumseh paused a moment, seeming surprized at the appearance of his adversary. That pause proved fatal—for in it Colonel Johnson drew a pistol and discharged its contents through his body. The Indians no longer hearing the stentorian voice of their leader, fled in confusion, and the rout was complete. The American loss was but fifty; that of the British seventy, besides six hundred prisoners: the Indians left one hundred and twenty dead on the field, and those who escaped could not be gathered together again in battle.

Stationing General Cass with a thousand men at Detroit, Harrison now returned to Buffalo, intending according to his instructions, to co-operate with the army of the centre in effecting what appeared to be the grand object of the American government, the conquest of Canada. Reeent victory had increased the confidence of the administration, and revived the martial spirit of the people. A larger force than at any former period was collected along the northern frontier, and placed under the command of generals Wilkinson and Hampton, officers then highly esteemed for

their military information, as well as warlike taste and abilities. In charge of the war office, was General Armstrong, a man held in distinguished consideration for his courtly experience, his familiarity with arms and tactics, and his thoroughly American spirit. Strangely, indeed, does it sound, when we are told that with all these advantages just *nothing* could be accomplished. Eight thousand men stood upon their arms on the northern frontier, exclusive of Harrison's four thousand, who were ordered to rendezvous at Plattsburgh, all waiting for the word of command to march upon Montreal. At length, after a very tedious course of preparations, it came: the secretary of war himself arrived and reviewed the troops, delivering his instructions. At Grenadier Island, on Lake Ontario, the flotilla was prepared which was intended to transport the armed array to the capture of Montreal, and every thing was in motion directly.

On the 5th of November, they were finally got under way. But now it appeared that bodies of the enemy had been gathered together at every convenient point upon their route, well prepared to harass and dispute with them their passage. To disperse them, a body of troops under the command of General Brown was landed, and directed to march in advance of the boats. At Chrystler's Fields, on the 11th of November, a body of the enemy of about the same force, was encountered, and the battle which ensued was fought with resolute bravery on both sides. Both parties claimed the victory. The American loss was greatest, but as they drove the enemy from their position, and enabled the flotilla to pass unmolested, it is but fair to allow that they accomplished all they intended.

The next day the troops arrived at St. Regis. At this place General Hampton had been ordered to join the main army, and no doubt had been entertained of his disposition and ability to comply with the order. But here General Wilkinson learned, with surprise and mortification, that the contemplated junction would not take place. The project of attacking Montreal was consequently abandoned, and the army under Wilkinson marched to Frenchtown Mills, and there encamped for the winter. Great indignation followed this abortive issue of the campaign; the severest censure fell upon General Armstrong, for having associated two such officers as Wilkinson and Hampton, between whom there was a well known spirit of animosity existing. The latter soon after resigned his commission in the army, and General Izard was selected in his stead, to command the post at Plattsburgh.

The injury suffered by the United States on account of this trifling, did not end altogether in disappointment. Failing in the extension of their territory, they were dispossessed of their former acquisitions on the Canadian shore. Fort George was abandoned—but before leaving it, the officer in charge was guilty of an act which provoked a lamentable retaliation from the British. He crossed over to the handsome village of Newark, and sacked and left it in flames. Sir George Prevost, in return, surprised Fort Niagara, with its garrison of about three hundred, and put nearly every man of them to the sword. Not satisfied with this, his myrmidons forthwith began to ravage and lay waste the country, burning in their course Lewistown, Manchester, Youngstown, the Indian village of the Tuscaroras, and Buffalo.

In the beginning of this year, 1813, the emperor of Russia had offered his mediation to the two powers at war. On the part of the United States the offer was promptly accepted, and Messrs. Adams, Gallatin, and Bayard, were appointed commissioners to negotiate, at St. Petersburgh, a peace under the proffered mediation. On the 24th of May, Congress was convened by proclamation of the president. Laws were enacted imposing a direct tax of three millions of dollars; authorizing the collection of various internal duties; providing for a loan of seven and a half millions

of dollars; and prohibiting the merchant vessels of the United States from sailing under British licenses. Near the close of the session, a committee appointed to inquire into the subject, made a long report upon the spirit and manner in which the war had been commenced and conducted by the enemy. Many proofs were presented of shameful departures from the rules of warfare observed by civilized nations.

In September, Commodore Chauncey made two cruizes upon Lake Ontario, and repeatedly offered battle to the enemy's squadron, which was of superior force; but Sir James Yeo, the commander, intimidated by the result of the battle on Lake Erie, retired before him. On one occasion, however, in a running fight, the British ships sustained considerable injury: but the inconsiderable breadth of the passage which separates the frontiers in the neighbourhood of the several forts, allowed the British to cross over in their small boats, and therefore rendered naval superiority in a great measure unavailing.

After the failure of the campaign against the British provinces, the northern army remained in winter quarters until the latter end of February. The troops were then divided, two thousand men being ordered with General Brown to Sackett's Harbour, and the remainder returning to Plattsburgh with General Wilkinson. The latter officer, not feeling satisfied with his exploits in Canada, on the 15th of March ensuing, at the head of four thousand men, re-crossed the Canadian lines, and attacked a fortified stone house known as La Colle Mill, which was garrisoned by about two thousand. After a persevering assault, in which the besiegers suffered severely, they were obliged to retire. This event, in connection with other unfortunate operations, caused the administration to suspend General Wilkinson from any further command.

The impolicy of carrying on offensive war, for the purpose of conquering a British province, was becoming every day more and more apparent. Militia and volunteers could be assembled for defence; but regulars only were suitable for purposes of invasion—and recruits for the regular service came forward with reluctance, because the name of an enlisted soldier was held in disrepute. Inexperience in commissarial affairs, also, had promoted waste and disappointment: at one time the soldiers were furnished with exuberance, at another left destitute of a sufficiency. The expenditure was thus three times larger than the ministerial estimates, and the consumption of regular soldiers greater than could be balanced by recruiting. No expedient was left untried, however, to keep up the establishment: the enormous bounty of one hundred and twenty-four dollars was offered to recruits, the regular pay was increased, and future benefits in lands tendered: millions of acres were for this purpose surveyed in Illinois and Missouri, one hundred and sixty acres being apportioned to each private, with a corresponding increase to subordinate officers.

At sea, no event of importance had lately transpired. Captain Rogers, who commanded the frigate President, returned from a long cruize, having captured eleven merchantmen; but he met no armed vessels, the capture of which could enhance his reputation. Captain Porter, in the Essex, rode triumphant over the Pacific ocean, annoying the trade of the enemy, and protecting that of the republic.

In the southwestern extremity of the Union, troubles of a serious nature were demanding the attention of government. The influence of Tecumseh had been felt among the Indians there, and many of them were persuaded that the Great Spirit required of them to attempt the extirpation of the whites on their borders. The Creeks and Seminoles, in particular, were carrying on a cruel war against the frontier inhabitants of Georgia. General Jackson, therefore, at the head of two thousand five hundred volunteers from Tennessee, marched into the country of the In-

dians. Overawed by his presence, they for a time desisted from hostilities; but immediately after his return, their animosity burst forth with increased and fatal violence. To escape their cruelty, about three hundred men, women, and children, sought safety at Fort Mimms, in the Tensaw settlement. Yet, notwithstanding they had received frequent warnings of an intended attack, on the 30th of August, at noonday, they were surprised by a party of six hundred Indians, who with axes cut their way into the fort, and drove the people into the houses which it enclosed. These they set on fire. Many persons were burned, and many killed by the tomahawk. Only seventeen escaped to carry the horrid tidings to the neighbouring stations.

The whites resolved on vengeance. Again General Jackson, at the head of three thousand five hundred militia of Tennessee, marched into the southern wilderness. A detachment under General Coffee encountered, at Tallushatchie, a body of Indians, and a sanguinary conflict ensued. The latter fought with desperation, neither giving nor receiving quarter, until nearly every warrior had perished. At Talladega, another battle was fought, in which three hundred Indians were killed, and the rest of the party, exceeding seven hundred, fled. General Jackson's provisions being exhausted, he was unable to pursue them. While on his return to the settlements to obtain a supply, his troops became refractory, and even mutinous: nearly all returned to their homes; but to the small number that remained, were soon added a reinforcement of one thousand mounted volunteers.

With this force he marched to Emuckfaw, within a bend of the Tallapoosa, where a body of the enemy were posted. To several skirmishes succeeded a general battle, in which the whites were victorious, but sustained considerable loss. For the relief of the wounded, Jackson returned to Fort Strother, where the volunteers were discharged. General White, from East Tennessee, and General Floyd, from Georgia, led separate expeditions against the Indians, and were victorious in every combat. So enraged were the savages, that but few would accept of quarter or seek safety in retreat. Yet still was the spirit of the Creeks unsubdued, and their faith in victory unshaken. With no little sagacity and skill, they selected and fortified another position on the Tallapoosa, called by themselves Tohopeka, and by the whites Horse-shoe Bend. Here nearly a thousand warriors, animated with a fierce and determined resolution, were collected. Three thousand men, commanded by General Jackson, marched to attack this post. To prevent escape, a detachment under General Coffee, encircled the Bend. The main body, keeping within it, advanced to the fortress. For a few minutes, the opposing forces were engaged, muzzle to muzzle, at the port holes. Soon the troops, leaping over the walls, mingled with the savages, and the combat became furious and sanguinary. The Indians, fleeing at length to the river, beheld the troops on the opposite bank. Returning, they fought with increased fury and desperation, and continued to resist until night. Six hundred warriors were killed; four only yielded themselves prisoners; the remaining three hundred escaped. Of the whites, fifty-five were killed, and one hundred and forty-six wounded.

It was expected that another stand would be made, by the Indians, at a place called the Hickory Ground, and thither General Jackson marched, in April. The principal chiefs came out to meet him, and among them was Wetherford, a half-blood, distinguished equally for his talents and his cruelty. "I am in your power," said he, "do with me what you please. I commanded at Fort Mimms. I have done the white people all the harm I could. I have fought them, and fought them bravely. There was a time when I had a choice; I have none now—even hope is ended. Once I could animate my warriors; but I cannot animate the dead. They

can no longer hear my voice; their bones are at Tallushatchie, Talladega, Emuckfaw, and Tohopeka. While there was a chance of success, I never supplicated peace; but my people are gone, and I now ask it for my nation and myself." Peace was concluded, and the successful general and his brave troops enjoyed an honourable though a short repose.

In the winter of 1813–14, the fifteenth Congress held a second session. Warlike measures were of course the only ones of consequence adopted, and to enforce their vigorous prosecution, the president was authorized to borrow twenty-five millions of dollars and to issue treasury notes to the amount of five millions. Before the close of the session, a communication was received from the British government announcing its readiness to treat for peace, although declining the mediation of Russia. A direct negotiation at London or Gottenburgh was proposed instead, which the American government frankly accepted, and chose the latter place, for which, however, Ghent was afterwards substituted. Henry Clay, and Jonathan Russell, Esqrs., were named as commissioners additional to those already in Europe. Mr. Clay was at that time the popular speaker of the House of Representatives, which station he relinquished in consequence of this appointment, and the vacant chair was filled by Langdon Cheves, of South Carolina.

Meantime, information was received of the stupendous events which had recently occurred in Europe. The Emperor of France had been arrested in his victorious career, his armies being expelled from Spain, and defeated at Leipsic, and himself compelled to abdicate the throne and retire to the island of Elba. Louis the XVIII. was proclaimed king of France: and Great Britain, at peace with all the world except the United States, was enabled to direct against them alone the immense force which had been employed to crush her rival. She delayed not to use the advantages afforded by her good fortune. From the ports of conquered France, ships of war and transports bearing veteran and victorious troops, sailed to the American continent, some destined to the Niagara frontier, and some to the Atlantic coast. These events could not be viewed with indifference by the American people. The friends of the administration anticipated a severer conflict and prepared for greater sacrifices and greater sufferings. Its opposers were encouraged to make more vigorous efforts to wrest the reins of authority from men who, they asserted, had shown themselves incompetent to hold them. Their efforts, although condemned by a great majority of the people, diminished in no slight degree the strength of the Republic.

In the beginning of July, General Brown, who had been assiduously employed in disciplining his troops, crossed the Niagara with about three thousand men, and without being opposed took possession of Fort Erie. In a strong position a few miles distant, at Chippewa, was intrenched an equal number of British troops, commanded by General Riall. On the 4th, General Brown approached their works. The next day the two armies met, in the open field, and obstinate and bloody was the conflict. The Americans were finally victorious: the enemy having sustained the loss of five hundred men, sought safety behind their intrenchments. This decisive victory, achieved after so many reverses, was hailed as an omen of future success. Soon afterwards General Riall abandoned his works, and retired to the heights of Burlington. Here Lieutenant-general Drummond, with a large reinforcement joined him, and assuming the command, led back the army towards the American camp. On the 25th, was fought the battle of Bridgewater, which began before sun-set and continued until midnight.

This battle was fought near the cataract of Niagara, whose roar was rivalled by the thunder of cannon and the din of arms, but was distinctly heard during the pauses of the fight. At intervals the moon shone brightly,

but often her light was obscured. Against a superior force, the Americans for several hours contended with various success. During the first part of the engagement, they were sorely annoyed, into whatever part of the field they might drive the enemy or be driven, by the British artillery, which was stationed on a commanding eminence. "Can you storm that battery?" said General Ripley to Colonel Miller. "I'll try, sir," was the laconic answer—which afterwards became the motto of his regiment. At the word of command, his men with steady courage ascended the hill, advanced to the muzzles of the cannon, killed with the bayonet several artillery-men on the point of firing their pieces, and drove the remainder before them. Both parties were instantly reinforced, and the enemy made a daring attempt to regain their cannon. They were repulsed, but quickly repeated the attempt. Nearly all the opposing forces were gathered around this position, and to possess it was the sole object of both armies. Again the enemy were repulsed—but again they renewed the effort: after a violent conflict they were a third time driven from the hill. The firing then ceased; the British troops were withdrawn; and the Americans were left in quiet possession of the field.

Generals Brown and Scott having both been severely wounded, the command devolved upon General Ripley. He remained a few hours upon the hill, collected the wounded, and then returned unmolested to his camp. The number of the killed and wounded proves the bravery of the combatants, and the severity of the struggle. On the American side it was eight hundred and fifty-eight; on the British, one hundred more, and of the latter one hundred and seventeen more were missing than of the former. The British, therefore, besides losing their position, sustained the greater loss of men.

During this battle, in the evening, Captain Ambrose Spencer, son of the chief-justice of New-York, and aid to General Brown, was dispatched with orders to one of the regiments; when about to deliver them, he suddenly found himself in contact with a British corps; with consummate coolness, and a firm air, he enquired "What regiment is this?" On being answered, *the Royal Scots*, he immediately replied, "*Royal Scots, remain as you are.*" The commandant of the corps, supposing the orders came from the British general, instantly halted his regiment, and Captain Spencer rode off. This brave officer was afterwards mortally wounded, and taken prisoner. Captain Loring, the aid of General Drummond, was taken prisoner by the Americans—and was exchanged for the *corpse* of Captain Spencer.

Here, to show how diametrically opposite were the dispositions of the British and American commanding officers, we beg leave to subjoin the substance of a brief correspondence held between them on this occasion:

CAMP, BEFORE CHIPPEWA, *July 27th*, 1814.

SIR:—

Your wounded aid, Mr. Spencer, is in my possession. Send Captain Loring, and you can have him.

GORDON DRUMMOND, *Maj. Gen., H. B. M. S.*

FORT ERIE, *July 29th*, 1814.

SIR:—

Your aid, Captain Loring, is here, quite well and comfortable. If Captain Spencer is able to be removed, I will gladly make the exchange. The bearer of this is the brother of my aid; I pray you to let him superintend the removal of the wounded man to the American lines, as his life is very dear to me. Any kindness you can render him will be thankfully acknowledged by me; and your aid returned, whether mine shall arrive *dead or alive.*

JAC. BROWN, *Maj. Gen., U. S. A.*

Captain Spencer died about the time of the arrival of his brother—not having been at all able to bear removal. General Drummond, however, considered the arrangement for an exchange complete, and General Brown, soliciting permission from the secretary at war, was authorized to make it.

General Ripley found his force so much weakened, that he deemed it prudent again to occupy Fort Erie. On the 4th of August, it was invested by General Drummond with five thousand troops. In defending it, no less bravery and skill were requisite, and no less were displayed, than in contending in the field. In the night between the 14th and 15th, the besiegers made an assault upon the fort, which was repelled with conspicuous gallantry by the garrison, the former losing more than nine hundred men, the latter but eighty-four. The siege was still continued. On the 2nd of September, General Brown, having recovered from his wounds, threw himself into the fort, and took command of the garrison. For their fate great anxiety was felt by the nation, which was, however, in some degree removed, by the march from Plattsburgh of five thousand men to their relief. On the 17th, a sortie was made by the besieged, General Porter of the New-York militia, and General Miller of the regular army, commanding divisions. The bravery of the troops equalled that which they had displayed in the recent contests. After an hour of close fighting, they returned to the fort, having killed, wounded, and taken prisoners, one thousand of the enemy. The American loss was also severe, amounting to near five hundred.

On the 21st of September, the forty-ninth day of the siege, General Drummond withdrew his forces, relieving the garrison from their toil, which had been incessant, and from their danger, which had been encountered without fear. Seldom have troops deserved higher praise of their country. On the 9th of October, General Izard arrived with the reinforcement from Plattsburgh, and being the senior officer, took command. On the 18th, he marched, with his whole force, in pursuit of the enemy, whom he found at Chippewa, strongly posted in a fortified camp. After making several unsuccessful attempts to entice them into the field, he evacuated Canada, and placed his troops in winter quarters at Buffalo, Black Rock and Batavia.

The march of the troops from Plattsburgh having left that post almost defenceless, the enemy determined to attack it by land, and at the same time to attempt the destruction of the American flotilla on Lake Champlain. On the 3d of September, Sir George Prevost, the governor-general of Canada, with an army of fourteen thousand men, most of whom had served in the wars of Europe, entered the territories of the United States. As soon as his object was ascertained, Brigadier-general Macomb, the commander at Plattsburgh, called to his aid the militia of New-York and Vermont, who, with alacrity and without distinction of party, obeyed the call. On the 6th, the enemy arrived at Plattsburgh, which is situated near Lake Champlain, on the northerly bank of the small river Saranac. On their approach, the American troops, who were posted on the opposite bank, tore up the planks of the bridges, with which they formed slight breastworks, and prepared to dispute the passage of the stream. Several attempts to cross it were made by the enemy, but they were uniformly defeated. From this time until the 11th, the British army were employed in erecting batteries, while the American forces were every hour augmented by the arrival of volunteers and militia. Early in the morning of that day, the British squadron, commanded by Commodore Downie, appeared off the harbour of Plattsburgh, where that of the United States, commanded by Commodore McDonough, lay at anchor, prepared for battle. The American squadron consisted of fourteen vessels, carrying eighty-six guns and eight hundred and twenty-six men. The British consisted of seventeen vessels, with ninety-five guns and one thousand and

fifty men. At nine o'clock the battle commenced—and seldom has the ocean witnessed a more furious encounter than now took place on the bosom of this transparent and peaceful lake. At the same moment the enemy on land began a heavy cannonade upon the American lines, and attempted, at different places, to cross the Saranac. At a ford above the village the strife was hot and deadly. As often as the enemy advanced into the water they received a destructive fire from the militia, and their dead bodies floated down the stream literally crimsoned with blood.

At half past eleven, a shout of victory was heard along the American lines, announcing the result of the battle on the lake. A second British squadron had yielded to the prowess of American seamen. The cry animated to braver deeds their brethren on the land. Fainter and fainter became the efforts of the enemy; and in the afternoon they withdrew to their intrenchments. In the night they began a precipitate retreat, and had fled eight miles before their departure was known in the American camp. Upon land, the American loss was one hundred and nineteen; that of the British was estimated at two thousand five hundred. In this latter number, however, are included five hundred British soldiers who deserted from the retreating army, preferring a residence in this country to service in the British line. On the water, the American loss was one hundred and ten: that of the British one hundred and ninety-four, besides eight hundred and fifty-six made prisoners. With these splendid victories closed the campaign on the northern frontier.

In the meantime, on the ocean, the republican flag maintained its high reputation. Victory was not always won—but defeat never occurred attended with dishonour. The Essex, commanded by Captain Porter, after a bloody combat, prolonged longer than was necessary to vindicate his fame, struck to a British frigate and sloop of war, whose united force was much superior. The American sloop Peacock captured the Epervier, of equal force. The sloop Wasp, commanded by Captain Blakely, captured the Rein-deer, and afterwards, in the same cruize, sunk the Avon, each of superior force. She made several other prizes—but never returned into port. Darkness rests upon her fate. She probably foundered at sea. The republic, with deep and sincere grief, mourned the loss of her gallant crew.

In the beginning of August, many vessels of war, and a large number of troops, arrived in Chesapeake Bay from Europe. Of this force, several frigates and bomb vessels were ordered to ascend the Potomac; another division, under Sir Peter Parker, was directed to threaten Baltimore; while the main body, under Admiral Cochrane, ascended the Patuxent as far as Benedict, where, on the 19th of August, five thousand men, commanded by General Ross, were landed. During this time, General Winder had busied himself in calling together his forces, who, however, were very remiss in complying with the call. Not more than two thousand militia, with one thousand regulars, could be collected; though even these, it would appear, might have made some resistance, as they possessed above twenty pieces of cannon, while the British had only three. They continued to retreat, however, as far as Bladensburgh, where a stand was ordered; on the first approach of danger, the militia fled in confusion, the enemy hotly pursuing; whence the field has since retained the name of "Bladensburgh race-ground," over which the Americans greatly outran the British.

No opposition was offered to the progress of the enemy, except by a body of sailors and marines, under Commodore Barney and Captain Miller; these were stationed advantageously, and could no doubt have effectually impeded the advancing foe, if the assistance which they had a right to expect from General Winder had been afforded. As it was, they were outflanked and surrounded by the enemy, cut in pieces and taken prison-

ers. Thus the fate of Washington was decided. General Ross, with a thousand men, slowly approached the city, where he arrived on the 24th, at eight o'clock in the evening. At nine, the capitol, containing the Congressional library, senate, supreme court, and representative chambers, public records, &c., &c., was set on fire, as was also the president's house, the treasury, war, and navy offices, and all the public establishments, with the single exception of the post and patent office building, which was only saved by the personal intercession of its superintendent.

In the sanguinary wars which grew out of the French revolution, the capitals of Europe were successively in the hands of conquerors—but *they* waged no such Vandal war against specimens of art, public libraries, and public papers. All civilized nations exclaimed against this violation of the rules of honourable warfare—and the indignation of the republic was fully aroused. All ages and all classes turned out to defend Baltimore, and volunteers flocked in from the neighbouring states of Virginia and Pennsylvania.

Meanwhile, however, the squadron which had ascended the Potomac, met with even less resistance than that which had passed up the Patuxent. As soon as it arrived at Alexandria, the citizens proposed a capitulation; the British commander stated his terms, and allowed one hour's time to determine upon them. To purchase safety, they delivered up all their shipping, all the merchandize in the city (including sixteen thousand barrels of flour), and all the naval and ordinance stores, public and private. With a fleet of prizes, loaded with rich booty, the enemy returned immediately to the ocean.

The success of the attack on Washington having encouraged General Ross to proceed against Baltimore, on the 12th of September he landed five thousand men on North Point, about fourteen miles from the city, for which he took up his line of march. Preparations for defence had already been made. General Smith, who commanded the American forces, detached General Stricker with three thousand men, to retard the progress of the enemy. At about eight miles from the city the advanced parties met, and in the skirmish which ensued, General Ross was killed. The invaders, however, continued slowly to advance, under command of Colonel Brooke—and the Americans gradually retreated to within half a mile of their intrenchments. The British then paused, choosing to await the result of a bombardment of the American batteries, which had been commenced by their fleet.

Not less than fifty sail were drawn together in view of forts M'Henry and Covington, which stand at the entrance of the harbour; and for twenty-four hours an assault was continued, without success, against these posts. They were commanded, the first by Major Armistead, and the latter by Lieutenant Newcomb, of the navy; and the defence was allowed in every respect to have been conducted with signal ability. The commander of the British forces upon land, finding he was to receive no assistance from the fleet, held a conference with Admiral Cochrane during the night, in which it was determined to abandon the project of taking Baltimore, and attempt some more feasible operation. Accordingly on the 14th, they retreated to North Point, and the next day re-embarked. Shortly after, the fleet left Chesapeake Bay, a part of it proceeding southward, to convey troops to the theatre of a future undertaking, and an unprecedented slaughter.

In the autumn of 1814, information was received that the British and American commissioners had met and held conferences at Ghent. Great Britain, rendered arrogant by her recent triumphs in Europe, and by the capture of Washington, demanded terms which extinguished all hope of a speedy reconciliation. Still Congress shrunk not from the duties which the crisis imposed. General Armstrong not having manifested sufficient

energy, was removed from office, and Colonel Monroe appointed Secretary at War in his stead. Mr. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, was assigned to the Treasury department—and vigorous measures were adopted for sustaining the national honour, increasing the finances, and placing upon a firm footing the credit of the country.

The repose of General Jackson, and the troops whom he commanded, was interrupted by the arrival at Pensacola, in August, of three British ships of war, bringing three hundred soldiers, and arms and ammunition to be distributed among the Indians of Florida. The troops were permitted, by the Spaniards, to take possession of the fort, and the commander issued a proclamation, indicating an intention of carrying on war against the adjacent parts of the Republic. General Jackson, with characteristic promptness, took instant and efficient measures for calling to his aid the patriotic militia, who had before been victorious under his banners. Having remonstrated in vain with the governor of Pensacola for affording shelter and protection to the enemies of the United States, he, near the end of October, at the head of a body of regulars and two thousand mounted volunteers, marched against that place. A flag, sent to demand redress, was fired on from the batteries. He immediately marched into the city, stormed the fort, obtained entire possession, and compelled the British to evacuate Florida.

Returning to his head-quarters at Mobile, he there received intelligence that a powerful expedition was on the way to attack New Orleans. Without delay he marched with his troops to that city, and found it in a state of confusion and alarm. The militia, composed of men of all nations, was imperfectly organized; many, feeling no attachment to the Republic, had refused to enter the ranks. No fortifications existed on the various routes by which the place could be approached; and fears were entertained that the reinforcements of militia which were expected from Kentucky and Tennessee could not arrive in time to take part in the contest. Undismayed by the difficulties which surrounded him, General Jackson adopted the most decided and efficient means for the safety of this rich and important city. He visited in person every exposed point, and designated the positions to be fortified. He mingled with the citizens, and infused into the greater part his own spirit and energy. By his presence and exhortations, they were animated to exertions of which before they were not supposed to be capable. All who could wield a spade, or carry a musket, were put to work upon the fortifications, or trained in the art of defending them.

On the 21st of December, four thousand well-arrayed militia arrived from Tennessee. On the 22d, the enemy, having previously landed, took a position near the main channel of the river, about eight miles below the city. They numbered not far from eight thousand men. In the evening of the 23d, General Jackson made a sudden and furious attack upon their camp. They were thrown into disorder, but soon rallied, and fought with a bravery equal to that of their assailants. Satisfied with the advantages first gained, he withdrew his troops, fortified a strong position four miles below New Orleans, and supported it by batteries erected on the west bank of the river. On the 28th of December, and 1st of January, vigorous but unsuccessful attacks were made upon these fortifications by the enemy. In the meantime, both armies had received reinforcements; and General Packenham, the British commander, resolved to exert all his strength in a combined attack upon the American positions on both sides of the river. With almost incredible industry, he caused a canal to be made, leading from a creek emptying into Lake Borgne to the main channel of the Mississippi, that he might remove a part of his boats and artillery to the latter. All things being prepared, the 8th of January was assigned for the division of the "booty and beauty" which the city of New Orleans might have contained.

In the night, a regiment was transported across the river, to storm the works on the western bank, and turn the guns on the American troops on the eastern. Early in the morning, the main body of the enemy, consisting of more than eight thousand men, marched from their camp to the assault. While approaching, fearless and undaunted, showers of grape-shot thinned their ranks. When they came within musket-shot, a vivid stream of fire burst from the American lines. General Jackson having placed his troops in two ranks, those in the rear loaded for those in front, enabling them to fire with scarcely a moment's intermission. The militia of the west, trained from infancy to the use of the rifle, seldom took unsteady or uncertain aim. The plain was soon covered with dead and wounded; some British regiments faltered and fell back; but others advanced and presented new victims. While bravely leading to the walls the regiment which bore the ladders, General Packenham was killed. In attempting to restore order and to rally the fugitives, General Gibbs, the second in command, was wounded mortally, and General Keane severely. Without officers to direct them, the troops first halted, then fell back, and soon fled in disorder to their camp. In little more than an hour, two thousand of the enemy were laid prostrate upon the field; while of the Americans but seven were killed and six wounded—a disproportion of loss without a parallel in the annals of warfare.

General Lambert, upon whom the command of the British army devolved, despairing of success, prepared to return to his shipping. In his retreat he was not molested: General Jackson wisely resolving to hazard nothing that he had gained in attempting to gain still more. The events of the day on the west side of the river, present a striking contrast to those which occurred opposite them. The Americans were thrice the number of their assailants, and were well protected by intrenchments—yet they ingloriously fled. The British closely pursued, until they learned the defeat of the main army, when they returned.

Rejoicings for the splendid preservation of New Orleans had hardly ceased, when a special messenger arrived from Europe bringing with him a treaty of peace. Affairs had taken a new turn in Ghent, it seems, so that the treaty was signed at that place on the 24th of December, 1814, and in London, by the Prince Regent, four days later. The British government had receded from all its former exorbitant demands; and as the orders in council had been repealed, and all motive for the impressment of seamen had ceased with the war in Europe, no stipulation in regard to those subjects was inserted in the treaty—which provided merely for the restoration of peace and the revision of boundaries. The treaty was immediately ratified by the president and senate.

The war, however, did not cease on the ocean, until additional victories had imparted a brighter lustre to the republican flag. In February, the Constitution, then cruizing under the command of Captain Stewart, captured the Cyane and the Levant, whose forces united were superior to hers: and in March, the sloop Hornet captured the brig Penguin, stronger in guns and men than the victor.

Details of battles can hardly be considered appropriate in a work like this; yet in order to render complete the chain of events which leads from one prominent point in history to another, it is due that allusion should be made to them.

With reference to authorities consulted in the compilation of these pages, it is proper to observe, also, that none but the best have been considered worthy of attention.

The annexed summary, we have been at some pains to procure, for the purpose of showing the reader at a glance, the total amount of life destroyed in the course of this conflict:

BATTLES ON LAND,

Fought between the Americans and British during the war of 1812-14,—*with dates, names of commanding officers, and their respective losses.*

BROWNSTOWN, August 4th, 1812, American, Major Van Horn, loss 47; British and Indians, loss unknown.

MAGUAGO, Aug. 9th, 1812, American, Colonel Miller, loss 76; British, Major Muir, loss 129.

DETROIT, August 16th, 1812, American, General Hull, surrendered 2340; British, General Brock, loss 0.

PICOLATA, Sept. 27, 1812, American, Colonel Newman, loss 12; Creeks and Seminoles, loss 70.

QUEENSTOWN, Oct. 13th, 1812, American, General Van Rensselaer, loss 950; British, General Brock, loss 150.

TIPPECANOE, Nov. 7th, 1811, American, General Harrison, loss 188; Indians, Tecumseh, loss 301.

MASSASINEWA, Dec. 18th, 1812, American, Colonel Campbell, loss 36; Indians, Prophet, loss 77.

FRENCHTOWN, Jan. 18th, 1813, American, Colonel Lewis, loss 67; British, Major Reynolds, loss 83.

FRENCHTOWN, Jan. 22, 1813, American, General Winchester, loss 958; British, Col. Proctor, loss 305.

YORK, (U. C.) April 27th, 1813, American, General Pike, loss 269; British, General Sheaffe, loss 695.

FORT MEIGS, May 5th, 1813, American, General Harrison, loss 188; Indians, 43 prisoners.

RAPIDS OF MIAMI, May 5th, 1813, American, Colonel Dudley, loss 750; British, General Proctor, loss 60.

FORT GEORGE, May 27th, 1813, American, General Dearborn, loss 160; British, General Vincent, loss 557.

SACKETT'S HARBOUR, May 27th, 1813, American, General Brown, loss 131; British, Sir George Prevost, loss 164.

STONY CREEK, June 6th, 1813, American, General Chandler, loss 155; British, General Vincent, loss 50.

CRANEY ISLAND, June 22d, 1813, American, Colonel Beatty, loss 0; British, Admiral Warren, loss 222.

BEAVER DAMS, June 24th, 1813, American, Colonel Boerstler, loss 535; British, Col. Bishop, loss 65

FORT SANDUSKY, Aug. 2d, 1813, American, Major Croghan, loss 8; British, General Proctor, loss 176.

MORAVIAN TOWN, Oct. 5th, 1813, American, General Harrison, loss 29; British and Indians, loss 635.

WILLIAMSBURG, Oct. 11, 1813, American, General Boyd, loss 339; British, Colonel Morrison, loss 180.

TALLUSHATCHIE, Nov. 3d, 1813, American, General Coffee, loss 46; Creek Indians, loss 270.

TALLADEGA, Nov. 8th, 1813, American, General Jackson, loss 30; Creek Indians, loss 290.

HILLIBEE TOWNS, Nov. 18th, 1813, American, General White, loss 5; Creek Indians, loss 250.

AUTOSSEE, November 29th, 1813, American, General Floyd, loss 65; Autossee King, loss 200.

ECCANOCHOO, Dec. 23d, 1813, American, General Claiborne, loss 7; Wetherford, loss 30.

CAMP DEFIANCE, January 27th, 1814, American, General Floyd, loss 149; Indians, loss 87.

ENOTACHOPCO CREEK, Jan. 23d, 1814, American, General Jackson, loss 95; Indians, loss 189.

TALLAPOOSA BEND, March 27th, 1814, American, General Jackson, loss 132; Indians, loss 850.

La Colle Mill, March 30th, 1814, American, General Wilkinson, loss 74; British, Major Handcock, loss 58.

Oswego, May 6th, 1814, American, Colonel Mitchell, loss 69; British, General Drummond, loss 235.

Sandy Creek, May 30th, 1814, American, Major Appling, loss 4; British, Captain Popham, loss 200.

Chippewa, July 5th, 1814, American, General Brown, loss 323; British, General Riall, loss 538.

Niagara, July 25th, 1814, American, Generals Brown and Scott, loss 858; British, Generals Riall and Drummond, loss 878.

Fort Erie, August 15th, 1814, American, General Ripley, loss 84; British, General Drummond, loss 990.

Conjocta Creek, Aug. 18th, 1814, American, Colonel Morgan, loss 10; British, Col. Tucker, loss 30.

Bladensburg, Aug. 24th, 1814, American, General Winder, loss 190; British, General Ross, loss 130.

Moore's Fields, Aug. 30th, 1814, American, Colonel Reed, loss 3; British, Sir P. Parker, loss 33.

North Point, Sept. 13th, 1814, American, General Smith, loss 212; British, General Ross, loss 380.

Plattsburgh, Sept. 11th, 1814, American, General Macomb, loss 119; British, Sir George Prevost, loss 2500.

Fort Bowyer, Sept. 15th, 1814, American, Major Lawrence, loss 9; British, Hon. W. H. Percy, loss 250.

Fort Erie, Sept. 17th, 1814, American, General Brown, loss 395; British, General Drummond, loss 985.

Cook's Mills, Oct. 19th, 1814, American, General Bissell, loss 60; British, Marquis Tweedale, loss—stores and position.

Near New-Orleans, Dec. 23d, 1814, American, General Jackson, loss 223; British, General Keane, loss 400.

New-Orleans, Jan. 8th, 1815, American, General Jackson, loss 13; British, General Packenham, loss 2600.

Total, American loss 10,229—British loss 19,729.

On the following page will be found a table of the principal battles at sea during the war. The details of a majority of them are familiar to our readers, and will be found briefly related in the foregoing pages. Many minor engagements have been omitted, in which signal ability and bravery were displayed, because of their having taken place irregularly, or between privateers and merchantmen. The *Saratoga*, for instance, was an American private-armed cruizer, and the Morgiana a British packet. The first, being chased by one of the enemy's frigates, was obliged to throw overboard nearly all her guns to effect an escape; after which, falling unexpectedly in with the latter, she determined to grapple and trust to boarding, when, after a brief but fierce and bloody struggle, the Briton was forced to yield. The *Chasseur* was also a privateer, an armed clipper belonging to Baltimore, whose commander facetiously issued his proclamation "for the blockade of all the bays, rivers, outlets, and inlets of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland," in imitation of British officers cruizing near the American coast. On his first expedition he made 18 valuable prizes, which were successively sent into New-York. Subsequently he gave chase to a "whity-brown schooner, no men or ports," which proved a disguised man-of-war of 15 guns, but he captured him by closing in. A fresh enemy heaving in sight, Capt. Boyle was forced to send his prize a cartel into Havana, while he made for Martinique to refit. The *Genl. Armstrong* was a New-York privateer, attacked while at anchor in a neutral port, at midnight, by 12 British boats manned with near 400 men. Timely notice being given of their approach, a deadly fire was opened on them, sinking, and putting them to flight. The *Decatur* was a private-armed vessel—the Dominica belonged to the British navy.

ACTIONS AT SEA,

BETWEEN THE NAVIES OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES,

FROM AUGUST 12, 1812, TO MARCH 23, 1814.

VESSELS. AMERICAN.	BRITISH.	WHEN FOUGHT.	COMMANDERS' NAMES.	GUNS.	DURATION OF ENGAGEMENT.	AMERICAN LOSS.	BRITISH LOSS.
Essex and	Alert,	August 13, 1812.	*Porter* and Langhorne.	32 and 20	8 minutes.	none.	150 men.
Constitution and	Guerriere,	August 19, 1812.	*Hull* and Dacres.	44 and 38	30 do.	14 men.	350 "
Wasp and	Frolic,	October 18, 1812.	*Jones* and Whinyates.	20 and 22	40 do.	10 "	135 "
United States and	Macedonian,	October 25, 1812.	*Decatur* and Carden.	54 and 49	1 hour 30 min.	12 "	350 "
Constitution and	Java,	Decem. 29, 1812.	*Bainbridge* and Lambert.	54 and 49	1 hour 45 min.	34 "	400 "
Hornet and	Peacock,	Febr'y 24, 1813.	*Lawrence* and Peake.	20 and 20	15 minutes.	3 "	139 "
Chesapeake and	Shannon,	June 2, 1813.	*Lawrence* and Brooke.	48 and 53	15 do.	350 "	84 "
Decatur and	Dominica,	August 5, 1813.	*Dixon* and Barrette.	7 and 16	1 hour.	20 "	88 "
Argus and	Pelican,	August 14, 1813.	*Allen* and Maples.	20 and 21	43 minutes.	130 "	20 "
Enterprize and	Boxer,	Sept. 5, 1813.	*Burroughs* and Blythe.	16 and 18	45 do.	14 "	130 "
American and British	Squadrons on Lake Erie,	Sept. 10, 1813.	*Perry* and Barclay.	54 and 63	3 hours.	123 "	450 "
Essex with	Phœbe and Cherub,	March 28, 1814.	*Porter* and Hilyar.	46 and 81	2 hours 30 min.	255 "	15 "
Peacock and	Epervier,	April 29, 1814.	*Warrington* and Wales.	22 and 18	43 minutes.	2 "	128 "
Wasp and	Reindeer,	June 28, 1814.	*Blakely* and Manners.	22 and 19	19 do.	26 "	118 "
Wasp and	Avon,	Sept. 1, 1814.	*Blakely* and Arbuthnot.	22 and 22	41 do.	3 "	44 "
American and British	squadrons on Lake Champlain,	Sept. 11, 1814.	*Macdonough* and Downie.	86 and 95	2 hours 20 min.	110 "	1050 "
Gen. Armstrong and	boats of a Br. squadron off Fayal,	Sept. 26, 1814.	*Reid* and Lloyd.	9 and —	40 minutes.	9 "	173 "
Five Amer. gun-boats and	forty-five barges of a British squadron on Lake Borgne,	Dec. 14, 1814.	*Jones* and Lockyer.	23 and 42	3 hours.	135 "	150 "
President and	British squadron,	Jan. 15, 1815.	*Decatur* and Hays.	53 and —	4 hours 30 min.	400 "	32 "
Constitution with	Cyane and Levant,	Febr'y 20, 1815.	*Stewart*, Falcon & Douglass	52 and 55	50 minutes.	15 "	336 "
Chasseur and	St. Lawrence,	Febr'y 26, 1815.	*Boyle* and Gordon.	12 and 15	15 do.	13 "	75 "
Hornet and	Penguin,	March 23, 1815.	*Biddle* and Dickinson.	20 and 22	22 do.	12 "	158 "
Saratoga and	Morgiana,	March, 1815.	*Wooster* and ———	4 and 18	15 do.	10 "	50 "
					Total loss of men,	Amer. 1,749.	Br. 4,367

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE TREATY OF GHENT TO THE PRESENT TIME.

We come now to consider, not a series of victories springing out of bloodshed, but some of the more truly ennobling and substantial triumphs which arise from an uninterrupted season of peace. One of the most liberal and enlighted of monarchs [Louis Philippe] has declared it his deliberate conviction that no serious collision between civilized nations can ever again occur. Looking abroad upon the world with a serene eye and mature judgment, he cannot but feel persuaded that the present mental superiority of mankind over former ages, will forbid the toleration hereafter of anything like the barbarism called war. We may at least be allowed to hope that he is right.

At the close of the struggle of 1812, the people of the United States found that, if they had accomplished all for which they began the contest, they had also materially crippled themselves; that although their bravery in battle and moderation in victory was now more firmly than ever established, those laurels constituted all that they had won. In return for which, they had increased their public debt an hundred millions of dollars; had completely deranged the monetary affairs of the country, overturned their general credit, and destroyed entirely the banking system of the nation. Innumerable failures had taken place in the eastern and middle states; and great dissatisfaction among the people resulted from certain swindling operations which had taken place by means of private banks and speculating brokers. Without a reliable currency, the circulation of specie being of course very limited, the commerce of the nation was in a fair way to experience a perfect paralyzation.

To remedy these evils, Congress deemed it expedient and necessary to provide for the establishment of a new national bank, the old one having expired wiih the year 1810, by limitation of its charter. It was therefore enacted, after a most strenuous opposition, that a bank should be organized, to continue twenty-one years from the 1st of July, 1816, having for its capital thirty-five millions of dollars. The labours of this great monied corporation were in the beginning, doubtless, highly beneficial to the country; but that it subsequently became a very dangerous monopoly, whose workings were at the least not beneficial to society, is strenuously maintained by the party now holding the reins of government, while the contrary is as strongly maintained by its opponents.

The next subject that engrossed the attention of Congress, was a revision of the duties on goods imported. In forming the new tariff, a judicious attention was given to protect domestic manufactures, without at the same time injuring the national revenue, or lessening, by over-indulgence, the industry and economy requisite to their full success. The double war imposts were, with few exceptions, reduced; but a large increase was made to the duties on some fabrics, particularly cotton cloths of a coarse description, especially when imported from the East Indies, where those articles are manufactured by persons contented with daily wages not exceeding a few cents, and from a material not grown in the United States. It is but justice here to state, that the regulation of the tariff would probably never have been quite as favourable as it is to the interests of the home manufacturers of this country, were it not for an untiring vigilance in their behalf, on the part of the Hon. H. Clay, of Kentucky, which has won for him the distinguished title of "Champion of the American system." This is the more remarkable, as he is from a section of country not likely to engage extensively in manufactures, and not generally allowed much credit as being particularly favourable to the eastern interests. If this truly great man is for his patriotism immolated

upon the altar of sectional partizanship, as at present seems most probable he will be, posterity, at least, will do his memory justice.

In the autumn of 1816, another election for president took place. James Monroe, of Virginia, was chosen without much opposition; and at the same time with him, Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, to fill the second office. Very few political changes occurred to disturb the quiet course of his administration: the same vice-president served with him eight years —and his official advisers were continued, with scarce an interruption, for a like length of time. John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury; John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, Secretary of War; Smith Thompson, of New-York, Secretary of the Navy; John M'Lean, of Ohio, Post-Master General; Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania, Attorney General.

For some years after the conclusion of the war, the foreign and domestic trade of the United States continued to be variable and unprofitable. The channels of consumption at home became gradually filled to repletion: while the universal peace of Europe enabled its producers to raise their own supplies, instead of calling upon the American market. Peace also allowed the ships of every nation to be its own carriers, and foreign merchants to do their own trading: the flag of the United States was no longer an agent between belligerents, nor were American ports now, as heretofore, the general entrepôts of the world. The terms of freight rapidly declined, vessels rotted in their harbours, and warehouses groaned under the stagnant pressure of accumulating merchandize. Internal traffic was not sufficient to employ the numerous individuals formerly engaged in the different pursuits of trade. Competition became excessive; and disappointment and distress very prevalent.

The public revenue could not escape being impaired by such multifarious embarrassments: it became every day more inadequate to meet the usual expenditures—in addition to which, moreover, calls for an enormous amount, from a new source, had lately been made. By an act of Congress, in 1818, a yearly pension sufficient for their decent maintenance had been granted to those officers and privates who had served for three successive years in the war of the revolution. More than thirty thousand of that venerable army made application for relief—and several millions of dollars were required annually to satisfy their claims. Money, in consequence, had to be obtained by loans; and various public expenses were necessarily curtailed, and the army and navy reduced. This state of things of course could not last; and we shall have presently occasion to turn over a new leaf, and consider a more encouraging picture of American affairs.

In the winter of 1819, the country was deprived of the services of Commodore Perry, who fell a victim to the climate of Trinidad, while on a cruize: and in the following spring, Decatur was killed in a duel, near Washington, by Commodore Barron. In the year 1820, under the favouring auspices of President Monroe, a society for colonizing free people of colour began a settlement at Sierra Leone, on the coast of Africa, with a view to the final extinguishment of slavery in the United States. The tract has a good harbour, is high, fertile, and the healthiest in that region. It has since been called Liberia. No pains have been spared by the company to induce immigration to their colony, to render it thriving and successful, or to forward the laudable ultimate object with which they began the enterprize.

In 1821, the territory of Florida was ceded to the United States, by Spain, in compensation for spoliations upon American commerce to the amount of five millions of dollars. General Jackson was appointed first governor of Florida, and the unsettled, semi-savage state of the population was such as to require the greatest energy and decision to enforce respect

for the laws among them. A tedious and distressing predatory warfare was for years waged against the new settlers by savages inhabiting its inaccessible swamps and secure fastnesses. The U. S. troops seemed to be set at defiance, until the hostile tribes came out from their concealments in the everglades, and consented to remove beyond the Mississippi. A deputation of the Seminoles has lately returned from their new place of abode in the far west with such flattering accounts of the desirable nature of their possessions, that they will doubtless persuade the few straggling bands remaining in Florida to accompany them on their return home.

In the spring of 1822, the independence of the South American republics, and also that of the state of Mexico, was recognized by the U. S. Congress, and an appropriation made to defray the expenses of establishing with them a diplomatic intercourse. The European powers at length, very slowly and cautiously, adopted a similar course: and the several small republics are still existing, though their governments are unsettled, and internal discord, attended with effusion of blood, appears to prevail among them. Spanish influence, subjugation to a tyrannous priesthood, or other causes, may induce this sad state of their affairs.

About this time the U. S. government signalized itself by a series of vigorous and successful efforts against certain bands of lawless piratical marauders; these had for a long time infested the numerous shallow bays and inlets which indent the different West India islands, and were frequently guilty of cruel and cold-blooded murder, besides destroying much property and causing otherwise great annoyance and distress. All attempts to crush them were at the first futile, owing to their extensive and well-disposed arrangements for self-protection; none of the cutters constructed for war service were sufficiently light or swift to chase them with any success, and an ordinary craft of any description could not be made to penetrate into their recesses. The government accordingly had prepared ten small vessels, which, together with a sloop of war, a steam galliot, and the frigate Congress, were dispatched into the neighbourhood of their haunts. So actively was this matter then prosecuted, that in less than six months not a freebooter could be heard of on the coast of either Cuba or St. Domingo, or about the Keys of Florida, where formerly they had swarmed.

In August, 1824, General La Fayette arrived in the city of New-York, on a visit to the United States. In returning to America, near half a century from the period of his military career, and at the age of sixty-seven, La Fayette could hope to meet but few of his former associates in arms. Most of them had certainly found rest in the grave. A new generation had risen to manhood, a new army had re-crimsoned with their blood the soil which he had assisted to set free, and a third generation were springing up before him. On approaching the American shores he was equally surprised and delighted. History furnishes no record of an individual receiving so unusual and spontaneous a demonstration of respect. At the entrance of New-York bay, he was received by Governor Tompkins, who conveyed him to his private residence on Staten Island; the day following, business was suspended in the city, and the illustrious guest was welcomed with the roar of cannon, the ringing of bells, the parade of the military, and every demonstration of joy. It was estimated that not less than fifty thousand persons were assembled in the vicinity of the Battery to witness his arrival. Nor did these flattering manifestations then cease; they accompanied him in all his extended journeyings through the Union. And when at length his tour of observation ended, in the city of Washington, on the 10th of December following, the president in his message referred to the services of the distinguished stranger, and his present somewhat dependent circumstances in life, at the same time recommending Congress to take in consideration the matter, and make some provision

to be tendered the hero which would be worthy his acceptance and the character of the American people. A committee of the senate, to whom the subject was referred, reported two resolutions; the first granting him two hundred thousand dollars in money; the other, a township of six miles square, of any of the unappropriated lands which the president should direct. These resolutions encountered considerable opposition, but were both finally passed by very respectable majorities, and were presented to the general by a joint committee, accompanied with a complimentary address.

Since the conclusion of peace in 1815, the state of New-York has been busily engaged with her favourite designs of internal improvement. Canals were early proposed from the Hudson river to Lake Champlain, and from Albany to Lake Erie; the attention of scientific and public-spirited men was occupied with the subject, and commissioners were appointed by the legislature to investigate carefully the propositions. It was reported, that the objects were calculated to be of the greatest utility, but that the estimated expense was too great for individuals or private corporations to undertake; and that the national government or state legislatures ought only to attempt them. De Witt Clinton, the giant mover of the principal enterprise, it is said, consulted Ex-president Jefferson with a view to obtain his weighty opinion in favour of the project. The venerable statesman could not then see things in the same light with Governor Clinton: he replied, "Your plan is a noble one—magnificent—and may be carried into effect *a hundred years hence.*" Nevertheless, the Clintonians persevered, and in October, 1825, was completed the grandest work of internal improvement then anywhere, perhaps, projected. The Erie Canal is of itself three hundred and sixty-three miles in length, and connects the great lakes with the Atlantic Ocean. It cost upwards of seven millions of dollars, and was constructed by the state alone; yet its annual revenues have long since extinguished the debt, and it is now referred to as a most splendid and perfectly successful operation.

At the commencement of 1825, closed the very successful and prosperous, because peaceful, eight years' presidency of James Monroe. He had paid off sixty millions of the national debt—had peaceably acquired the important territory of Florida—and had seen established our national limits toward the west, on the Pacific ocean. Internal taxes were repealed, the military establishment reduced to its narrowest limits of efficiency, the organization of the army improved, the independence of the South American republics recognized, progress made in the suppression of the slave trade, and the civilization of the Indians advanced as far as practicable. Four candidates were set up to succeed Mr. Monroe in the presidential chair; they were John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, and Wm. H. Crawford. These were severally voted for by their partizans, and the election was warmly contested; but no one candidate receiving a legal majority of votes, the power of choice passed from the college of electors into the House of Representatives. Here, John Quincy Adams was chosen.

Mr. Adams, in his inaugural address, declared that he should endeavour to exercise something like magnanimity in his public acts, discarding every remnant of political rancour, and yielding only to talents and virtue that confidence which is too often bestowed upon those whose greatest claim is their subserviency to party purposes. We believe his pledge was well redeemed. The gentlemen composing his cabinet were the following-named:—John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, Vice President. Henry Clay, of Kentucky, Secretary of State; Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; James Barbour, of Virginia, Secretary of War; Samuel L. Southard, of New Jersey, Secretary of the Navy; William Wirt,

of Maryland, Attorney General; John M'Lean, of Ohio, Post-Master General.

In the year 1826, an unparalleled excitement sprung up in the northern part of the Union, on account of the abduction and alleged murder of a man named William Morgan. It was asserted that he had been sacrificed solely for opinion's sake, in this, a country most notoriously recognizing the right of all men to cherish whatsoever opinions may appear unto them proper, unless openly inimical to the welfare of others. It seems he was a member of the fraternity of free masons, and had progressed as far in the order as the royal arch degree. The obligations of the society require each member of said degree to consent that death may be inflicted upon him if he divulge the manner of initiation into a lodge, or proceedings thereafter. This man, however, becoming distressed in circumstances, and not having the fear of death or power of his brethren before his eyes, proceeded to publish to the world the history of their illuminations. Hereupon certain leaders of the fraternity, who were possessed of much zeal and very little judgment, became exceedingly wroth with the aforesaid derelict brother, and, it was said, did him from his family and friends abduct, so that he returned not. A year afterwards the mutilated body of a man was found washed upon the shores of Lake Ontario, which the widow of the missing Morgan testified before a coroner's jury to be that of her husband. Governor Clinton, though himself at the time grand high priest of the free masons, promptly offered a reward of two thousand dollars for proof to convict the authors of the assassination, and minute and lengthy trials of suspected individuals were had; but after every investigation, for want of sufficient evidence, no person could be punished. A curious episode occurs—the bereaved widow, seemingly unwarned or undiscouraged by her sad experience, very shortly after married *another* of the royal arch brethren.

In 1827, Henry Clay, then Secretary of State for the United States, arranged satisfactorily with M. Rebello, "knight of the holy crozier," and chargé d'affaires near the United States' government for his majesty the emperor of the Brazils, a dispute which had grown out of the Brazilian seizure of certain American vessels engaged in the carrying trade between Rio de Janeiro and the revolted Buenos Ayrean province. A serious collision had been threatened, owing to the too abrupt demand of passports, and precipitate departure of the American minister from his imperial highness' dominions. New treaties of amity, navigation and commerce, were also concluded with Austria, Denmark, Sweden, Guatemala and the Hanseatic League.

Towards the close of 1828, the tariff question was again agitated in Congress, and considerable asperity manifested. Eventually, however, the debates terminated in the passage of a law laying further protective duties on such articles of import as particularly competed with the manufactured and agricultural productions of the United States. By this tariff bill additional duties were laid on wool and woollens, iron, hemp and its fabrics, lead, distilled spirits, silk stuffs, window glass and cottons. The manufacturing states consequently received the law with warm approbation, while the southern states regarded it as highly prejudicial to the interests of the cotton planters; and in Charleston, South Carolina, the flags of the shipping were displayed at half mast, and a state convention was demanded.—Governor De Witt Clinton, of New-York, died, suddenly, this year. Also, General Jacob Brown, U. S. Army. And, early in the following year, John Jay departed.

General Jackson having been elected president and John C. Calhoun re-elected vice-president of the United States, they were formally installed in office on the 4th of March, 1829. The names of the new cabinet ran as follows: Martin Van Buren, of New-York, Secretary of State; Samue,

D. Ingham, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; John H. Eaton, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of War; John Branch, of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy. John M. Berrien, of Georgia, Attorney General; William T. Barry, of Kentucky, Post-Master General. Directly after the organization of the new government, a small party at the south then termed "state-rights" men, but subsequently "nullifiers," commenced working themselves up into a high state of exasperation, on account of the alluded-to obnoxious provisions of the last year's tariff. In Congress, the exponent of the views of these new-lights was no less a man than Colonel Hayne, of the Senate. Indeed, all parties seemed now suddenly resolved into two great antagonistic elements, alike confident in their strength, and eager only for the fray. Nothing appeared to merit or meet with attention in either house, unless it could be made in some way subservient to the great subject matter in hand: and the probable reason why the eventual struggle was not earlier brought to bear, may be seen in the revolutionary changing of government officers, both great and small, which immediately succeeded the elevation of the Jackson party.

On the 20th of January, 1830, upon the occasion of Mr. Foot's resolution relative to the public lands being brought forward, Mr. Webster and Mr. Benton respectively advanced the views of their constituents, in a brief, discursive manner, with their usual uniqueness and ability: but the storm was about to commence in earnest. Colonel Hayne directly followed the honourable senators, in a speech of two days' length, in which was set forth with no little ability and a deal of logic, the same "disorganizing" state-rights principles which, he contended, had been at least once within the memory of man advocated by the sons of the puritan-dwellers near Hartford, when in convention deliberately assembled. Nothing could avail the gentleman from the south, however, in a contest with the dark-browed champion of the east. This was too late a day to advocate principles with so slight a foundation. Mr. Webster disclaimed in behalf of New-England, all approach towards, or sympathy with, such strange delusions as the gentleman and his clique seemed subject to. He replied at length to all the assumptions of his distiguished opponent, and in conclusion, indulged in one of the loftiest flights of eloquence ever, perhaps, listened to upon any occasion. Men's minds were taken captive, their understandings chained, convinced—while all American hearts must have glowed with mingled pride and satisfaction, to know that their country possessed such unalloyed and profound patriotism.

In his first message to Congress this year, the president manifested towards the United States' Bank that spirit of opposition which was a few years later to break forth into open hostility, and create in certain sections such a strong feeling against him.

But the grand subject of consideration at this time, was the position of the Indians. These people were averse to removing from the borders of the states where they were located, while it would seem no power could effectually check the rapidly-encroaching sway of the masses of white population towards them. Collision of interests must necessarily follow their proximity, and consequent cruel and bloody personal encounters result therefrom. Owing to the impossibility of subjecting the aborigines to the usages of civilized society, as well as their peculiar and subtle system of warfare provoking inveterate enmity from their neighbouring settlers, nothing appeared in prospect for the tribes but ultimate extinction, without speedy and imperative measures from the general government were interposed in their behalf. To devise some expedient, therefore, by which to preserve the tribes and at the same time protect their own people, was the difficult task presented to statesmen. General Jackson, in commending this subject to the attention of Congress, remarked, that the fate of the Mohegan, the Narragansett, and the Delaware, was fast and

inevitably approaching the Choctaw, the Cherokee, and the Creek, if they remained within the limits of the states. He said that regard to our national honour brought forward the question whether something could not be done to preserve the race. As a means, to this end, he suggested that an ample district west of the Mississippi, and without the limits of any state or territory, might be set apart and guaranteed to the Indian tribes, each to have distinct jurisdiction over the part designated for its use, and free from any control of the United States, other than might be necessary to preserve peace on the frontier. There the benevolent might teach them; and there they might form a nation which would perpetuate their race, and attest the humanity of the American government.

The grand difficulty of the project, and one which would have appalled a timid mind, was met by the president in a characteristic manner. "The emigration," said he, "should be voluntary, for it would be as cruel as unjust to compel the aborigines to abandon the graves of their fathers, and seek a home in a distant land." Congress sanctioned the undertaking, and empowered the president to carry it out; and he fearlessly commenced, what, perhaps, no human ruler ever did before, to combine free-will with necessity. To cause the Indians to emigrate voluntarily, for their own good, became thenceforth his settled policy.

In 1831, on the 4th day of July, died James Monroe, fifth president of the United States. It has been considered a little remarkable, that no less than three American ex-presidents have died on the same day, and that the anniversary of their national independence. First, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, men who had probably contributed as largely as any others towards the elevation of their country in the scale of nations, simultaneously departed this life, amid the thunder of cannon and ringing of bells which announced the commencement of the second half-century of their well-loved country's existence: and next, as we have seen, on the same day of the fifth year following, Mr. Monroe was called also to join the glorious company of his patriot predecessors in the spirit-land.

About this time, under the auspices of John C. Spencer, Richard Rush, and others, sprang into notice a new political party—the anti-masonic. Immediately subsequent to the conclusion of the Morgan trials, which ended in the release of supposed culprits, the excitement of the public ran very high against an institution seeming to possess such unwarrantable and unlimited influence over life and law. The opportunity was of course seized, by demagogues or enthusiasts, to attempt the erection of a novel and attractive hobby for "the people," whereon they might ride themselves at least into temporary authority. In this case, indeed, the capital seemed unusually good, and the prospects very fair; various and talented statesmen had openly affirmed their belief in the unconstitutionality of the denounced institution: and, with the most commendable judgment, no less a man than William Wirt, of Maryland, was chosen and persuaded to run as the candidate of the new party in the approaching contest for the presidential chair. Alas! a chilling frost was destined suddenly to blight the rising hopes of the aspirants; notwithstanding the ardency of their converts and the availability of candidates—in the election which presently succeeded, their really estimable ticket received but the vote of one state in the union—that being Vermont. Upon the ruins of this air-castle a new fabric was shortly to be founded, eventually to attract some attention, under the name and style of the anti-slavery party.

In the month of August, 1831, a slave-insurrection of considerable local importance broke out in Southampton county, Virginia. It was originated by a crazy sort of vagrant nick-named "Nat.," who had passed among the negroes for some time as a Baptist preacher. His reputation for piety, or fanaticism, had so imposed upon the planters, that the wonder only was his influence had not been greater, and the struggle consequently more

fierce and bloody. The number of whites massacred on rising, was fifty-eight—consisting principally of decrepid men, women and children. The blacks then fled to the swamps, apparently terrified at their own atrocities; and were presently subdued with but little difficulty, yielding up their leaders to the gallows.

Abroad, the American minister at the French court, William C. Rives, this year effected a treaty with that nation, by the terms of which twenty-five millions of francs were agreed to be paid to the American government, in appropriate instalments, for spoliations upon commerce during the turbulent sway of the emperor Napoleon.

With the Neapolitan government we had negotiated in vain previous to this year, for an amicable adjustment of claims against it for the sequestration and plunder of American property during the ephemeral reign of Joachim Murat. The sudden appearance in the Bay of Naples of a respectable number of armed United States' vessels, however, together with a peremptory demand from General Jackson's minister, Mr. Nelson, of Maryland, seemed to bring his majesty of the Two Sicilies to reason. An order was directly given upon his treasurer, for the payment of 2,115,000 ducats, or $1,720,000, to be paid in nine equal instalments, with interest at the rate of 4 per centum until paid.

Stephen Girard, the great Philadelphia banker, died in December of this year. At the time of his death he was supposed to be the richest man in the nation—possessing about ten millions of dollars in available funds. In the war of 1812–14 he loaned the United States' government $5,000,000; and at the time of his death, with a praiseworthy liberality but little emulated by his trustees since, devised the great mass of his property to various charitable institutions and purposes in and near the city of Philadelphia. Early in life he commenced a small trading business in that city, and by frugality and persevering industry there acquired his wealth.

February 1st, 1832, Commodore Downes, in the United States' frigate Potomac, arrived on the coast of Sumatra, being principally on an expedition to chastise a horde of Malay savages for certain outrages upon Americans and their commerce. Among other charges against them, was one on account of the ship Friendship, of Salem; it appears this vessel had formerly traded with them for spices, &c., when, on a convenient occasion occurring, the barbarians determined upon appropriating to themselves the ship and its contents, after an indiscriminate massacre of the crew, by which they vainly hoped to hide their crime. When the chiefs were applied to for restitution in this case, and the delivery of the murderers, they with characteristic cupidity denied all knowledge of the matter and refused to give any kind of satisfaction. Commodore Downes took prompt and efficient steps directly; in the night of the 6th, his frigate was quietly worked in towards shore, and at dawn of day, in the mist, two hundred and sixty men were landed in detachments, without disturbing the natives. A simultaneous attack was made upon their five forts, which were in about three hours reduced, with much slaughter on the part of the Malays; while a heavy cannonade from the ship at the same time, soon laid their town of Quallah Battoo in ashes. The loss of the Americans was but two killed, and eight or ten wounded. A few mountaineers visited the frigate shortly after, when the commodore left word that he should call there again—if necessary.

Nearer home, this year, disturbances with savage tribes embroiled the public peace. In the month of April, the Winnebagoes, Sacs and Foxes, with a few Pottowatomies, Indians inhabiting the country of the Upper Mississippi, re-crossed that river under the chief Black Hawk, his son, and the so-called "Prophet"—the last being a shrewd, designing knave, always accompanying or concerned in the war and massacre undertakings of the red men. Being well armed and active, they soon scattered them-

selves through Illinois, where formerly they had dwelt, and burned and murdered all before them which bore any marks of civilization. Generals Atkinson and Scott were despatched against them. The several garrisons on the seaboard, from Fort Monroe, in Virginia, to New-York harbour, were directly ordered to Buffalo; and there were embarked upon steamboats with all haste for the scene of action. Now, most unhappily, from the heated and crowded manner in which the troops under Scott's command were obliged to travel (having been hurried through the country one thousand eight hundred miles in eighteen days), the cholera, which had just made its appearance in the country, broke out among them, and began to rage terribly. Language cannot depict the distress which ensued, both before and after the troops were landed. Many died, many deserted; and many perished in the woods from absolute starvation. At length the panic and distress partially subsided; and a few of the men were by forced marches enabled to reach General Atkinson's encampment. But the first action of consequence was fought by the mounted volunteer's under generals Dodge and Henry, who came upon Black Hawk's warriors on the banks of the Winconsin, July 21st. A sharp contest ensued, in which the Indians were worsted and put to flight, leaving nearly one hundred of their people on the field—the victors returning to General Atkinson for provisions.

An incident is related as occurring in a skirmish called by the Indians the battle of the Bad Axe. They were surprised by the whites at daylight in their huts, when women and children were unavoidably killed, from being indiscriminately mingled with the men. Among the rest, a young squaw, with her papoose, was flying for the river's bank, when a rifle ball pierced her breast, causing instant death to her, and breaking an arm of the infant. Her body fell upon that of the child so as to prevent its releasing itself—and for two hours and a half its cries were heard at intervals by the attacking party. At length, when the firing had abated, an officer of the assailants made his way to the little complainer, and had it as soon as possible conveyed to the garrison at Prairie du Chien, and confided to the best offices of the surgeon. It has since grown into a sprightly girl—the pet of the company.

In a general engagement at the mouth of the Upper Iowa, on the 2d of August, the Indians were completely routed and dispersed; the chiefs shortly after were delivered up, and the fugitives consented to return at once to their appointed quarters west of the Mississippi. Black Hawk, his son, and several warriors of note were conveyed to Fortress Monroe, where they were detained a few months; and then carried through the principal cities of the United states, and the civilization and works of defence of the nation exhibited to them. They were then sent home to their people, convinced of the folly of attempting to contend against the power and discipline of the whites, with the unmanageable fury of their wild bands. In consideration of the lands which they left to the states upon taking possession of their new territories, the federal government pays to the Winnebagoes $10,000 per annum for twenty-seven years from the date of their leaving. To the Sacs and Foxes, it pays $20,000 annually for thirty years from the same time.

The Cholera pestilence this year ravaged the entire Union. It appears to have crossed the Atlantic with a company of emigrants in ships bound to Quebec and Montreal, from thence spreading quickly in every direction, though mainly and with most severity pursuing the great courses of travel. It broke out in several cities of the United States about the same time, in the month of July, and raged until autumn set in. In the city of New-York, four thousand persons are computed to have fallen its victims. Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, and New-Orleans, suffered in nearly the same ratio, in defiance of all the usual precautionary measures.

Boston, and the New-England states, were scourged less severely. On the American continent, nothing but the frosts of winter appeared effectually to arrest its progress: yet, amid the everlasting snows of Russia, it had manifested itself with true Asiatic virulence. Climate seemed to be no safeguard, nor ocean-wide barriers any defence. In mild southern France, the number of its victims was frightfully enormous; in the cities of Mexico, one-fourth of the population was destroyed: and on the island of Cuba, $100,000,000 worth of *slaves* are said to have perished in less than ninety days. It is stated, that on this island the coffee-planters mostly escaped the affliction, while the neighbouring sugar plantations were completely depopulated.

Death, in various forms, visited the great names of the earth, in the course of 1832. In New-York, of the prevailing epidemic, died William H. Maynard, eminent as a state senator, who left by his will the sum of twenty thousand dollars to establish a law professorship in Hamilton college. In Boston, the celebrated Doctor Spurzheim, founder, in connection with Doctor Gall, of the science of phrenology. In Ohio, the Rt. Rev. Roman Catholic Bishop Fenwick. In Georgia, Thomas Cobb, a revolutionary character, aged 120. In Maryland, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, the last surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, æ 96. In New-Hampshire, Captain Joseph Pratt, a naval commander of much esteem in the annals of revolutionary coasting. In Rhode Island, Captain Stephen Olney, of whom it is said, he was the first to scale the enemy's fortifications, and then shout the command, "Captain Olney's company will form here!" In New-Jersey, Philip Freneau, an early and prolific writer of American fugitive poetry. In Connecticut, Judge Hillhouse, a distinguished statesman and lawyer. At Abbottsford, Great Britain, Sir Walter Scott, "the wizard of the north." In London, Baron Tenterden, chief-justice of the king's bench. In France, General Lamarque, one of Napoleon's officers. Also, Champollion, the renowned French tourist—and, Casimir Perier, a statesman of celebrity in Paris. In Rome, Madame Letitia, mother of Bonaparte, æ 82. At the palace of Schoenbrunn, near Vienna, æ 21, Napoleon Francis Charles Joseph, duke Reichstadt, only son of Napoleon Bonaparte.

A. D. 1833.—It is proper now to take a farewell glance at that monster-spirit of the South, known as *nullification*, which once stalked with fearful mien among us. The electioneering campaign of '32 had merged all minor considerations, in the unusual exacerbation with which it was conducted. But when the result became known, and General Jackson, a southern man, was declared re-elected with increased majorities, together with Martin Van Buren, of New-York, "a northern man with southern principles," as his opponents termed him in derision for his lack of political bitterness. When this ticket was found to be triumphant, we say, southern agitators grew rampant. They looked upon such men as a god-send for their especial purposes: and in full confidence a legislative convention was called at Columbia, South Carolina, where the acts of Congress imposing duties for protection, were pronounced unconstitutional, and of no binding force in that state. Governor Hamilton in his message recommended the legislature to pass laws for preventing the enforcement of the revenue statutes by United States' collectors, and advised immediate preparations of a warlike nature to be made, placing the state in the best posture of defence. To the astonishment of these ultras, General Jackson at once, and in the most admirable spirit, issued a proclamation, calling on them to beware lest they should incur the penalties of such rashness and treason, while he set forth in a tone of candor and decision the principles and powers of the general government, and his firm determination in any event to maintain the laws. This seemed only to increase the exasperation in South Carolina; the governor of the state, by author

ity of the legislature, issued a counter-proclamation, urging the people to be faithful to their primary allegiance to the state, and to resist to the last any efforts of the United States' authorities to collect the tariff dues. A purchase was made of ten thousand stand of small arms, with appropriate munitions, &c., and general orders issued to raise volunteers for repelling invasion; messengers were also dispatched to neighbouring states, soliciting their co-operation and support. General Jackson hereupon addressed a message to Congress, recommending the adoption of such measures as would enable the executive to suppress this spirit of insubordination, and maintain inviolate the laws of the United States. Castle Pinckney and Fort Moultrie were accordingly reinforced with government troops, and Commodore Elliott ordered to rendezvous in Charleston bay with a fleet. John C. Calhoun had resigned the vice-presidency at the close of 1832, in order to take a seat in the United States' Senate for the purpose of lending his efficient aid to the support of the measures of his state. Thus everything betokened a civil war: but a timely appeal from the general assembly of Virginia, deprecatory of haste and passion, together with a momentary gleam from the better judgment of the leading men of South Carolina, produced a suspension of aggressive measures for a short time; when HENRY CLAY'S celebrated "compromise bill" being at this precise juncture introduced in Congress, was passed rapidly through both houses, and had the effect of most happily dispelling, at once and forever, it is to be hoped, the dark and portentous storm which lowered around.

Hardly had the ferment consequent upon a disorganizing movement among the states been allayed, when a new source of excitement came into public view. The United States' bank had from the first been the depositary of a large amount of government funds; and as the bank's charter was now about to expire, without a hope of renewal (the president having already vetoed a bill for its continuance), Congress was in his message recommended to remove the deposits to some more safe place of keeping. This was refused, in the representatives, by the unusually strong vote of 109 to 46. Nothing daunted, the executive began to plan his measures for *rescuing* the public funds in spite of Congress. By the act creating the United States' Bank, it was provided that the secretary of the treasury might remove the public deposits, but he was required to lay his reasons upon so doing directly before Congress. W. J. Duane, of Pennsylvania, being then at the head of the treasury department, immediately upon the rec·ss of Congress was desired by General Jackson to issue an order for the transfer of the public monies, on account of the following-named reasons: first, a general unsafeness of the bank; second, the bank's improper conduct in postponing the redemption of the government three per cents., and thereby delaying the liquidation of the public debt, which was a favourite measure of the administration; third, its exaction of damages ($170,041), for dishonour of the government's draft on France for four millions of francs, being the first instalment due under a recent treaty with the French; and fourth, interference with politics. Mr. Duane not deeming these reasons sufficient, refused either to give the desired order, or to resign his office. Not to be thwarted thus, the president summarily dismissed the refractory officer, and appointed in his stead Roger B. Taney, of Maryland, who immediately complied with the wishes of the executive, and the deposits were removed. They were transferred to the care of several state banks; the opposition choosing to consider such institutions equally unsafe as the "mother bank," the whole matter presently became a subject of fierce recrimination and debate, both in and out of Congress. The bank party were strongly in majority; yet they suffered the government funds to remain where they had been confided by the new secretary, contenting themselves with placing upon record in the senate a resolution denouncing in the strongest terms the

conduct of the executive. This was, however, subsequently "expunged," through the exertions of Mr. Benton and his associates, when the "democracy" came into power.

General Jackson's cabinet, on the commencement of his second term, underwent a considerable modification. Altogether, he seems to have experienced a deal of difficulty in the selection of his constitutional advisers; none of them appeared to view things exactly in the light he did. The gentleman he now called around him, were the following: Edward Livingston, of New-York, Secretary of State; Louis M'Lane, of Delaware, Secretary of the Treasury; Lewis Cass, of Michigan, Secretary of War; Mahlon Dickerson, of New-Jersey, Secretary of the Navy; Roger B. Taney, of Maryland, Attorney General; William T. Barry, of Kentucky, Post-Master General.

This year was promulgated the particulars of a treaty between the United States and Russia, which was negotiated at St. Petersburgh between Count Nesselrode on the part of the emperor, and James Buchanan in behalf of the States. By its provisions, the present liberal system of commerce carried on between the two nations was put upon a permanent basis.

Some have a curious fancy for noticing the departure, from among men, of distinguished characters: we observe, in the year's obituary, several names of note. Commodore Bainbridge died at Philadelphia, æ 57. General Coffee, at Florence, Alabama, æ 62. Governor Scott, of Mississippi. Ex-governors Wolcott, of Connecticut, Skinner, of Vermont, and Edwards, of Illinois. John Randolph, of Roanoke, in Philadelphia, æ 61. Judge Hall, of North-Carolina, a distinguished jurist. Colonel Amos Binney, of Massachusetts, æ 65. Colonel John Neilson, of New-Jersey, a revolutionary hero. Colonel Nicholas Fish, of New-York, the same. Near the mouth of Red River, by explosion on the steamboat Lioness, Senator Johnson, of Louisiana, and fourteen others: strange to relate, this sad occurrence did not take place on account of a *race*, but was owing to a quantity of gunpowder being stowed carelessly. In England, Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, the indefatigable tory opponent of Sumpter and Marion, at the South. Also, Hannah More, the authoress; Wilberforce, the humanitist; Keane, the actor; and Rammohun Roy, the philosopher. In Paris, Marshal Jourdan, and Savary, duke of Rovigo, noted once as Bonapartists. In Germany, Goethe. In Spain, Ferdinand VII.

A. D. 1834.—We observe in the chronicles of this epoch, an unusual tendency to rioting. Small matters seem in various sections to have been magnified into importance, and the populace incited to acts which resulted in the destruction of life and property. At New-Orleans, a canal riot broke out between adverse parties of Irish labourers; a body of gens d'armes being sent to quell the disturbance, were fired upon by the mob, which was in turn charged on by the police, when much bloodshed and distress ensued. In New-York, the abolition riots prevailed for several days; a number of churches and private dwellings were destroyed, with a large amount of property. In Charlestown, Massachusetts, the Ursuline convent was barbarously demolished, its lady-abbess being thrown into hysterics, and its young lady-inmates considerably frightened.

That a better spirit was about that time pervading the higher class of citizens, we have much satisfaction in knowing: the evidence of this is particularly apparent in an energetic movement to suppress the prevalent pernicious practice of lottery-gambling. In New-York and Pensylvania, more especially, popular feeling had been manifested in favour of the nuisance, to a very discreditable degree; but the good sense of the lawmakers triumphed, and, maugre the infatuation of the brawlers, effectual penal prohibitory statutes were enacted.

A treaty rather favourable than otherwise to our commercial interests,

was this year concluded in the city of Madrid, between C. P. Van Ness, minister of the U. S. and Don Jose de Heredia, commissioner for the acting government of her youthful Majesty Doña Ysabel II., of Spain.—Also, another commercial arrangement, promising well for the trade of the two countries, was about the same time negotiated, between the North American envoy at Valparaiso and the authorities of the republic of Chili, South America.

The savans of this hemisphere were subject to an unusual excitement, about the month of November. In the previous autumn, an astronomical phenomenon of an astonishing and singularly beautiful character had been witnessed: the "shower of stars," as it was termed, had been seen along the whole line of the American continent, and afforded ample food for much curious conjecture with the learned both of this country and Europe. A recurrence of the phenomenon was now looked for, and there were nightly watchers on many house-tops, anxious either for the sake of philosophy in particular, or an indefinite desire for "enlightenment" in general. The professors at New Haven were applied to, and after devoting a reasonable share of attention to the probabilities of the case, consented to deputize a proper individual to make observations; but in this instance we believe, their assiduity was of no avail, as it did not result in any peculiarly valuable scientific elucidations.

In the obituary for this year, appears a name which still shines brilliant in American annals: that of General the Marquis de Lafayette, deceased at Paris, May 20th, in the 76th year of his age. In England, Prince Hoare, G. Lamb, and S. T. Coleridge, each of celebrity for literary attainments.—Also, in London, George Clymer, of Pa., and Earl Spencer, Earl Bathurst, Lord Breadalbane, and the duke of Sutherland. In the United States, Hon. Jonas Platt, of N. Y.; Cadwallader D. Colden, do.; governors, Porter of Mich.: Breathitt, of Ky.; Ex-governors, Jennings, of Ia.; Lloyd, of Md.: Col. William Polk, Æ 76, at Raleigh, N. C.; General Brodnax, of Va.: General Leavenworth, U. S. Army, near Fort Towson. In Georgia, William H. Crawford, celebrated in the political antagonism between Clay, Calhoun, Jackson, and Adams. At Washington city, Hon. J. Blair, of S. C., in a fit of insanity committed suicide; also, Hon. Mr. Bouldin, of Va., in the house of representatives fell dead in his place, while speaking in memory of Randolph, his predecessor; in the same city, William Wirt, Æ 62; in Georgetown, D. C., Lorenzo Dow, the eccentric itinerant preacher, who had travelled throughout this country and Europe, and probably addressed a greater variety of persons than any other divine since the days of Whitfield.

A. D. 1835.—From first to last of this year, the public mind was kept in agitation respecting the near prospect of a collision with France. Our readers have been apprized of the origin of this difficnlty, *i. e.*, a non-compliance with the terms of the Rives treaty of '31, completed in good faith between that minister and the government of the French monarch. The Chambers of France had in this case certainly exhibited an extremely dilatory and unusual spirit, in neglecting to make provision for the payment of their just dues; whereupon the hot blood of his warlike excellency, Andrew Jackson, began to boil, and he was betrayed by his indignation forthwith into an assumption of the extreme prerogatives of his magisterial office—to the surprise of his own people, and the astonishment of the French. His message to Congress in December, '34, was replete with belligerent breathings; immediate attention to the defences of the nation was demanded, appropriations for increase of the navy, &c., recommended, and reprisals upon the commerce of France, as soon as practicable, strongly advised. Fortunately, the senate at once and unanimously refused to act upon the executive suggestions; and the house, wherein the president was slightly in majority, handled the matter so

delicately, that the utmost the war-agitating party could force through was the following declaration: "1. That the treaty with France of the 4th of July, '31, should be maintained, and its execution insisted upon. 2. That the committee on foreign affairs should be discharged from the further consideration of so much of the message as relates to commercial restrictions, or to reprisals on the commerce of France." Here, then, for a while the subject rested: but no sooner had M. Serrurier, the French ambassador near General Jackson, laid an exposé of these things, as in duty bound, before his government, than he was abruptly recalled home. Again it appears, that the French chambers, emboldened by what they fancied to be a spirit of opposition in the American people to the measures of their president, resolved that he should apologize, at the least, for his hauteur of manner towards them. Our minister in France, Mr. Livingston, had been instructed, in the event of the French chambers refusing to adjust the claims, to return home immediately, in a ship of war which would be dispatched for that purpose. The money was not refused; but the bill granting it was passed with a clause which suspended payment till satisfactory explanations should be given to France of the President's language. Mr. Livingston consequently returned to Washington. The president met Congress in December, again, and of course devoted a large share of his opening address to these things; after a due recapitulation, the general, instead of abating in his usual candour or peculiar decisiveness, wound up with a flourish something after the fashion following: Proposition 1. That there was nothing in his former message that required explanation: Proposition 2. That if there was, he should not allow a foreign power to require it; or to take notice of, or found demands upon, the tenor of an interior communication of one department of the American government with another. Here, then, affairs were taking a new posture; here, again, was matter for a supplementary action in the French chambers: and we were once more in the way to be plunged in all the probabilities of a prolonged and unavailing warfare, equally as senseless on the one hand as the other. Now, however, at this critical juncture, the better genius of both countries interposed, and saved them from themselves. Thanks to the immediate interference of bluff William IV., the sailor-king of England, who, brave and humane alike, now proffered to the mock-heroic governments his mediation between them; it was accepted, and everything was presently arranged to the satisfaction of all parties; long, it is to be hoped, so to continue.

Amid the political jarrings and discord of this era, an occasional bright relief appears upon the clouded horizon. Among other causes of congratulation which may be named, we find a statement embodied in the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, to the effect that the government of the "great and prosperous nation" whose financial concerns he had the honour to take charge of, was now entirely relieved from all manner of coordinate liabilities: "and the United States now," said the honourable secretary, "presents the happy, and, probably, in modern times the unprecedented spectacle, of a people substantially free from the smallest portion of public debt."

Both the tribes of the Chickasaw and Choctaw Indians had now removed entirely from the confines of the states of Georgia and Alabama, and their yielded territories were accordingly offered at the different land-offices for sale. Treaties in the highest degree favourable, alike to them and to the people of the United States, were in process of fulfilment: the chiefs had become persuaded as well of the superior value of their new territories, as of other advantages derived by them from the exchange. Thus a general satisfaction was apparent, which was considered the more remarkable at that time, as it was directly in despite of the loud lamentations and bewailments of the party of those unfortunate gentlemen,

Rev'd. Messrs. Butler and Worcester: and now that we have touched upon the subject, it may be as well to mention, that these men were missionaries among the afore-named tribes, from among whom they were some time previously taken by the authorities of the state of Georgia, on a charge of indirectly fomenting disturbances, and creating a spirit of resistance particularly hostile to the constituted authorities of that state; upon this accusation they were tried, found guilty, and thrown into the state penitentiary; but after a brief incarceration, they were released by virtue of a pardon from Governor Lumpkin; and the red men having now peaceably removed, the missionaries were permitted to return to their former field of labours, where we presume they endeavoured, with accustomed and very commendable assiduity, to instil into the untutored Indian's pliant mind an admiration for the astonishing virtues of "civilized" people.

Near the close of the year, an unparalleled conflagration visited the city of New-York, the effects of which were so extensive as to be felt more or less in every direction throughout the land. It is computed that nearly *twenty millions* of dollars worth of property was destroyed, without estimating the injury and loss from individual failures and suspension of business. The fire broke out early on the night of the 16th of December, the thermometer at the time standing at zero; of course, the intensity of cold rendered engines and hydrants of but little use, though the devotion of firemen to their duties still shone conspicuous and bright as ever. At two o'clock on the morning of the 17th, Lieutenant Reynolds, with a detachment of marines from the navy-yard at Brooklyn, and shortly after Captain Mix, with a body of sailors under arms, arrived on the ground; they rendered very essential service, in guarding property, and taking charge of a quantity of gunpowder brought from the magazine at Red Hook for the purpose of stopping the ravages of the flames by explosion. After the devouring element had swept away between thirty and forty acres of substantial buildings, mostly stores filled with rich merchandize, a stop was put to the further spread of the desolation, by making use of the powder and exploding certain buildings. As an instance of one of the uses of law, it may be mentioned, that the owners of said exploded buildings subsequently brought suit against the city for allowing their property to be thus destroyed, and damages in full were recovered.

Among the names of the dead for this cycle of time, are to be seen several that have filled the trumpet of fame. In Philadelphia, Chief-justice John Marshall, of Va., aged 80; at Columbia, S. C., General Wade Hampton, aged 81; in Connecticut, Senator Nathan Smith, aged 66; in Tennessee, Bishop M'Kendree, of the M. E. Church, aged 78; in N. Y., Enoch Crosby, the original of Cooper's "Spy," aged 88; at Havana, Commodore Henley, U. S. N.; *en route* to Spain, William T. Barry, American minister. In Paris, Admiral de Rigny; Bellini, the composer; and barons Dupuytren and Humboldt. In England, William Cobbett, author; C. Matthews, comedian; James Hogg, the "Ettrick shepherd;" Professor Malthus, political economist; in Edinburgh, the Rev. Dr. Chalmers; at Dublin, Mrs. Felicia Hemans. At Vienna, æ 67, "his imperial majesty, Francis II., emperor of Austria, king of Hungary, Bohemia, Lombardy and Venice, and president of the German confederation."

A. D. 1836.—Occasionally the annalist finds it necessary to reach alike backward and forward into the mists of time, in order to trace correctly the history of events from cause to consummation: and in some instances, though rarely, "the intelligent public" may justly consider it requisite in us to hazard an opinion respecting the peculiar merit or blame-worthiness attached by different schools of judges to difficult acts or actors. Perhaps, about this period of time, there was no more fruitful source of angry disputation, than the war in Florida; and, indeed, all

things considered, there could scarcely arise a more painful yet uncertain theme, or one presenting any similarly strange variety of aspects, as it whirled scathing and bloodily along.

Years elapsed, yet still the cruel contest raged; the silent knife, the midnight flame, and the indiscriminate massacre still went on as ever, in defiance of the power of a mighty nation, with men of much renown to head her armies. Truly, an unbiassed reader is half tempted to believe, with some of the general officers who *failed* to gather laurels in that disastrous region, that a kind of dark fatality controlled their best planned movements. For even when, by some intermission in their usual fate, officers and men survived the war and pestilence of two campaigns, starvation and madness, with consequent self-murder, was sure to sweep them down in the third. And, to complete the picture, when the Indians finally threw down their arms, an unexampled mortality destroyed them; death first appearing in the terrible and dreaded form of small-pox, and next in that of *steamboat explosions*.

As early as the beginning of '34, the storm of war began to brew; and it appears but too plain, that its seeds were sown under the very eyes of men sent to prevent such a catastrophe, and who, previously, had won a name for vigilance and conduct. General Wiley Thompson, and others, composed the agency to superintend the removal of the Indians from Florida, in conformity with the terms of the treaty of Payne's Landing; they had already experienced much difficulty, a majority of the tribe being stubbornly opposed to removing, and several of the more influential chiefs openly denying the validity of their former agreement. Osceola, a half-breed, the son of an English man and Indian woman, now came into notice; he was already distinguished as a proud, gloomy, and ambitious person, and he now keenly judged the prevailing dissatisfaction in his tribe afforded a rare opportunity for the further elevation of his fortunes. Accordingly, at "a talk" in the camp of General Thompson, he ventured haughtily to assume, upon a sudden, that the red men were the only rightful owners of the soil, and the whites had no business whatever upon it. For this "burst of eloquence" he was put in irons, and suffered a day's imprisonment; at the end of which he was released, making much profession of humility, and an entire acquiescence in the existing state of things. But, with genuine aboriginal duplicity, he had determined upon deep and thorough vengeance. After a sufficient delay to cover his intentions, the warrior set out upon a tour among the neighbouring tribes, circulating the war-belt with great assiduity, and endeavouring in his sonorous and really eloquent style, to incite a general rising for the extermination of the whites from their borders.

In '35, he passed some time among the restless and quarrelsome Creeks, who were easily persuaded to join in the promising scheme. And it was owing altogether to the machinations of this wily individual, that General Scott was forced, in April of this year, to make all speed to their territory, when the battle of the Chattahoochie river, in Georgia and Alabama, was the result. Much praise is due the prudence and conciliating tact of Scott on this occasion, as well as his warlike capabilities, for, by making various trifling concessions, and promising more, the tribe was pacified. Thus a grand link in Osceola's chain of war was broken; alas, that no power was found sufficient to accomplish as much elsewhere.

The first act of the endless tragedy opened as follows: Major Dade, with a detachment of one hundred and seventeen men, was ordered, on the 23rd Dec., '35, from head-quarters at Tampa Bay (Fort Brooke), to join General Clinch at Camp King, a station about one hundred and twenty miles on the route towards St. Augustine. The general was urgently requiring to be reinforced, as his foes were daily increasing in numbers and audacity, and steadily closing around him. Major Dade's men forced

their way over two-thirds of the distance, experiencing unexampled difficulties and dangers, the roads being obstructed, and bridges burned by hostile bands before them; but on the morning of the fourth day, and when fondly looking for their journey's end, they were unexpectedly ambushed, and volley after volley from unerring rifles poured in upon them before an enemy could be discovered. A solitary man, after being severely wounded, by feigning death escaped. Thence the savages proceeded to Camp King, and a like scene was enacted there, at the sutlery, within gunshot of the blockhouse. General Thompson, Lieut. C. Smith, Rogers, the sutler, and others, were at dinner, when Osceola and his party quietly walked in and shot them down, and after leisurely securing those highly-prized evidences of their brutality, the scalps of the victims, they as coolly, and without molestation, departed.

A more even-handed part of the play was shortly to be performed: and the truth of that portion of prophetic lore which declares "they who kill with the sword shall themselves likewise perish," was to be practically illustrated. The Indians gaining confidence from their late unchecked operations, assembled in force on the banks of the Withlacoochee, near Clinch's position. Aware how important it was to clear the communication for receival of his supplies, the general instantly sallied forth to dislodge the menacing enemy. After a hard day's fight the Indians retreated, carrying with them their dead; the loss on the part of the whites was between fifty and sixty, killed and wounded. An incident having an air of romance, is stated to have transpired here: Osceola, who commanded the savage array, had formerly received some trifling kindnesses at the hands of an American lieutenant, who was now observed among the foremost of the pale-faces, leading his men to battle; the chief, it is said, at once gave orders that this man should be spared—but that every other officer should be cut down, if possible, without mercy. At all events, the friend of Osceola escaped unharmed from the thickest of the fight, while his compatriots, with scarcely an exception, could boast no such immunity.

Though forced to retire, the Indians were by no means discouraged yet; and though Clinch had come off victor for the day, his triumph was dearly bought, and he was still in danger of starvation. Surrounded by a foe the most implacable, and without sufficient means to attempt cutting his way through them, messengers were dispatched in every direction for aid. The enlightened and useful chief, Charley Omathla, with his band of friendly Indians, were next attacked by Osceola and murdered: so that now the Americans found it nearly impossible to communicate from post to post, or procure an emissary able to thread his way at all through the beset paths of the forest. At the end of a month, however, assistance arrived. General Scott landed at St. Augustine on the 7th of February, and was approaching Fort Drane, when he received information that General Gaines had also landed, upon a part of the peninsula nearer Clinch, with a reinforcement sufficient for every purpose. Scott was himself ordered to proceed forthwith to the Creek country, which he did, and in a short time quelled the disturbances there, as before mentioned. Meanwhile, the second battle of the Withlacoochee was fought between Gaines and the savages, when the former proved victorious, and relieved Clinch. Immediately thereafter, disliking Florida service, or deeming the troubles ended, General Gaines took up his line of march for New Orleans, his former quarters.

General Clinch, unambitious of further laurels, about the same time resigned his commission and went into retiracy. General R. K. Call, governor of the territory, then assumed command-in-chief, and proposed vigorously to prosecute the warfare to conclusion. For some cause, however, an order was early received by the governor, from General Macomb, at head-quarters, announcing a further change in the command.

Adjutant-general Jesup was nominated in his stead, much to the dissatisfaction of General Call, and the complete discomfiture of his extensively-made arrangements. Burning with zeal, and filled with confidence in his own abilities, General Jesup determined by a series of swift and brilliant movements to rid fair, fated Florida at once of all her foes. Judiciously planned and well carried into execution, were his first measures: bodies of troops were thrown among the Indian villages, and kept close upon the trail of the war-parties. The result of this, was a speedy report of several battles, almost simultaneously, in different quarters of the country. First, Col. Henderson, commanding marines, came upon the enemy suddenly, near the head waters of the Ocklawaha, when a severe action ensued, in which the chief Osuchee, or Cooper, fell, his warriors being routed, and their camp equipage taken. A few days later the same corps encountered a party of the enemy on the banks of the river Hatchee-Luskee, when a severe masked fight took place, in which the Indians had the worst of it, though they managed finally to escape into the everglades, bearing with them their dead. The next battle of the season (8th February, '37) was that of Lake Monroe, when the Indians were the attacking party, and came well prepared. They assaulted the command of Col. Fanning at break of day, on all points, and fought with the greatest intrepidity; but were eventually repulsed, though not until they had wounded many, and killed Captain Mellon, of the 2d artillery, a meritorious officer, who held his position bravely to the last.

General Jesup, in his report of proceedings about this date, mentions coming upon the Thlau-hatkee (White Mountains), an elevated range of hills not mentioned by any geographer, nor described in any account of Florida hitherto published. The passage of his scouring parties over these ridges was exceedingly difficult, rendering the transportation of baggage-wagons almost impossible.

Up to the beginning of March, '37, the contest was waged with much vigour on both sides; but the chiefs then found they were fast getting worsted, and they therefore proposed, unitedly, to capitulate. Jesup at once offered them favourable terms, when, without hesitation, a majority of them came into camp. In the short space of thirty days from that time, nearly the whole disposable force of the savages, with their women, chidren, and negroes, were comfortably housed in the different forts, harmless, and apparently contented, awaiting the action of authorities in regard to their removal. The principal chief, Holatechee, son of Micanopy, king of the Seminoles, came in; his father being detained at home by sickness, sent a promise that he would also soon come. At the same time arrived from their war-paths, Cloud, Jumper, Jim Boy, and Tustenuggee, with Abraham, a negro, the Talleyrand of the savage court; they all and severally agreed that the people under their command should remove as soon as the necessary preparations could be made. Our commander-in-chief, therefore, in the plenitude of his simplicity, or beguilement, pronounced the war ended; and he began at once the arrangements which were, no doubt, kindly intended to separate for ever the sons of the forest from the scenes of all their earlier joys and sorrows—as well as to relieve his own men for a season from their arduous but well-performed duties. Transports were ordered in readiness, the commissary's department largely drawn upon, and everything appeared in a fair train of completion, when, alas! a most unfortunate interruption put a period to these promising plans.

Jesup certainly did much, perhaps more than any one else, towards quelling the storm which was desolating Florida when he landed upon its shores; but he had evidently yet to learn what a hydra-headed description of monster "the war" in reality was. No sooner had the sickly season commenced, and the unacclimated soldiers begun to fall victims

to it—than the Indians, with their accustomed cool and keen perception of matters and things, began themselves to make preparations for leaving—though not exactly for the "far-west." Thus, be it understood, after having for three months been housed, clothed, and provisioned in the different garrisons, besides receiving various flattering compliments on account of their submissive and proper spirit, these gentlemanly savages, unconquered as ever, took occasion one morning in a quiet and unobtrusive manner to decamp back into their native woods again. And it is, perhaps, vastly to be regretted that the parties did not here cry quits, and let the matter drop. It would seem, instead of this, that the red-men, in spite of their characteristic gravity and their boasted equanimity of temper, were considerably elated with the idea of their own successful shrewdness, and fully determined upon doing something else which would appear smart. On the other hand, their innocent-hearted entertainers were not all pleased with their own reflections; it cannot be denied that they were a little vexed at being in this unmitigated manner outwitted—and were unanimously resolved upon revenging themselves—if an opportunity occurred. As for the general-in-chief, he felt unreasonably chagrined; and, regardless of all the honours previously achieved in that redoubtable campaign, he directly wrote home for permission to resign both the glory and his baton of command. This was cruelly refused him: whereupon, in defiance of circumstances and the season, he commenced with renewed energy to wage war against the savages. Bands were equipped and sent forth with the severest intentions—being ordered to ferret out the foe from his recesses, and force an instant combat. Simultaneously, hostile movements were made on the other side; troops of Indians were seen hovering about Picolata and Volusia, and the inhabitants were in hourly expectation of an attack. The impending danger was deemed great, and volunteers were solicited from the neighbouring states, which solicitation was promptly complied with, so that everything again betokened bloodshed and devastation.

While these spirited scenes were being enacted, a runner from the aged chief Micanopy arrived before General Jesup, bringing the information that his men were *not* hostile, but had been compelled to the course they had adopted, of quietly leaving the garrisons, by threats from Osceola's powerful gang, which was now moving in company with the fierce and numerous bands of Micasukies under Sam Jones, none of which had as yet been persuaded to "come in." It was further stated that a dissension had arisen among the adverse Indians, and that various chiefs and subchiefs had been cut to pieces in the fray, the shrewd leader Wild Cat, with Tigertail, Black Dirt, and Alligator, being named as the principal sufferers. This, however, was found subsequently to be merely a *ruse* of the red diplomatists, for the purpose of lulling the pale-faces into a false security.

About this time an additional interest was added to the entire question, by an unexpected outbreaking of jealousies and recrimination between illustrious ex-commanders. Certain of those potent and grave generals so far forgot themselves, indeed, as to appeal in moving epistles of six columns' length, through the public papers, to the favourable feelings and sympathising judgment of that long-time-hallowed and magniloquent tribunal, "the people." Most of the officers concerned in Florida affairs appeared, successively, on the arena, in his own defence, whether accused or not; and even General Cass, being at the time absent in France as American minister, thought the subject of sufficient moment to call for the production of an elaborate paper from himself, in vindication of his course while secretary at war. General Clinch, considering his conduct impugned by this document of the ex-secretary, replied to it with much asperity; and other appeals, equally interesting, followed in rotation. Perhaps, however, the most readable matter in this connection was a corres-

pondence which was published derisively in juxtaposition, intending to throw ridicule upon General Jesup, the cream of which is here given:

"*To the commander-in-chief, at Washington:*

"The Florida war ought to have been ended a week ago: I was in full march with a force sufficient to have terminated the war in *five days*, when my progress was arrested by an order from General Scott."

General Jesup, June 20, 183

'Let General Jesup assume the command ———"

President Jackson.

"*To the Honourable, the Secretary at War:*

"The prospect of terminating this war in any reasonable time, is anything but flattering."

General Jesup, again, Feb. 11, 1838.

Justice to this extra-sanguine officer, demands a further exposition of his views and feelings. Hear him, as early as the beginning of 1837, hold the following language-explanatory, in a report to Mr. Secretary Poinsett: "If I have at any time," he commences, "said aught in disparagement of the operations of others in Florida, either verbally or in writing, official or unofficial, knowing the country as I now know it, I consider myself bound, as a man of honour, solemnly to retract it." This is certainly frank and above-board: experience is the mother of wisdom—and the general was not ashamed to admit he had profited by her teachings. The skirmishes which followed his new assaults upon the enemy were numerous; but nothing of a decisive character occurred up to the battle of Mosquito, which took place in August, 1837, General Hernandez commanding. The American forces came upon the Indians in their camp, and by the impetuosity of their attack succeeded in capturing both the chiefs Philip and Euchee Billy, and entirely dispersing their associates. This was not accomplished, however, without the loss of the brave lieutenant M'Niel, of the dragoons, who fell, with others of conspicious merit, in the heat of the action.

Pity that people can be so often misled as they are, in estimating the deeds of men. Perhaps the most important and really praiseworthy event which has been brought about in Florida, was the capture of Osceola; advantageous alike to himself and people, the settlers upon the blood-stained soil, and the government of the United States. Yet no men were ever more completely victimized, than those who projected, or permitted the completion of this fine stroke of policy. The denunciatory invectives which were incontinently showered down upon them, in season and out of season, must have been regarded with no little wonder by the reasoning part of community. Without doubt, no positively dishonourable act would have provoked the same vituperation and blame from the same quarters; for that class of pseudo-philanthropists who are so fond of attempting to regulate the public conduct always confine their fault-finding to extremely doubtful cases. Here, now, was the prime mover of all the murder and massacre which had reigned in the land, the spiller of torrents of innocent blood, the breaker of treaties, the violater of his own flag of truce, peaceably apprehended and held, for his own as well as others' safety: here was a man uniting in his own person extraordinary duplicity and determination, a combination of valour and villainy dangerous in the extreme to society, who was taken in custody without a blow being struck, or any conflict with or infringment upon the conventional rules of right. There can be no cause whatever assigned, why this man and his desperadoes should not have been taken precisely as they were taken, and held as they were held. No injury or insult was offered, nor any manner of injustice practised. No object was desired by their captors save to place a bar to

the escape of the lawless to their former haunts and former habits of pillage and defiance; this was accomplished—nothing more.

Osceola, then, with eighty of his most distinguished followers, were together captured, on the 22d of October, '37. General Hernandez and Major Plimpton were the active agents on this occasion, and by the celerity of their movements, and cool and decided action, rendered themselves conspicuous. They proved themselves efficient men. The Indians had been gathered together for council—armed to the teeth, however—when a large body of dragoons appeared from every quarter around them, and without a word proceeded to relieve the warriors of their weapons; the sudden and unexpected nature of the operation of course precluding the possibility of resistance. To prevent mishaps, General Jesup directly transferred the majority of them on board such vessels as could be obtained, and Osceola and his party were conveyed to Charleston harbour; here, for safe keeping, they were deposited within the comfortable precincts of Fort Moultrie, where all their wants were daily attended to. Most unfortunately, however, a few months after their arrival, in February, '38, Osceol died. His complaint was inflammation of the throat, resembling quinzy; but his death was undoubtedly hastened by his stubbornly rejecting all proper medical treatment in favour of the mummeries of his own medicine-man or prophet. Now, again, was seen fresh cause for striking up a new alarum in the various sympathizing partisan papers of the day:

Directly subsequent to the taking of Osceola and his company, an energetic demonstration was made by General Jesup, for the purpose of bringing to a speedy close this tedious war. But its cameleon-like character was now more apparent than ever; for, after chasing the hostiles through fen and morass, thicket and glade, while their only aim seemed escape, they suddenly changed their evolutions and the aspect of affairs. They presented themselves in number on the banks of the lake Okee-Chobee, and yelling their war-cry, sprang like mountain-cats fiercely into the midst of their assailants. Certain of them being in ambush, managed at the very commencement of the action to pick off several important officers, hoping thus, probably, to disarrange the plans of the whites and create a panic. Colonels Thompson and Gentry, of the 1st regulars, and 2d Mississippi volunteers, as well as Captain Sumner and Lieutenants Brooke and Center, were alike the victims. They were good men and true, and held in high esteem by all to whom they were known, and their early loss, instead of quenching the ardour of their troops, added fuel to the flame of their resentment, and the yrushed on determinedly to victory. The ground was disputed foot by foot, and the contest raged incessantly for hours; but the Indians were at length completely routed—though not without an expense to the whites of one hundred and thirty-eight of their number killed and wounded. This was on the 25th of December, '37, Colonel Taylor being principal in command.

Another affair occurred shortly after this, in January, '38, when a body of men under Jesup in person attacked an Indian encampment on the banks of the river Locha Hatchee. The fight which ensued was severe, a considerable number of warriors being gathered together, who resisted desperately; but they were at length compelled to give way, with material loss. On the side of the assailants, from thirty to forty were killed and wounded, among the latter of whom was General Jesup himself, who received a severe flesh wound in the face. In the same month, a contest resulting disadvantageously to the whites took place on Jupiter river. Lieutenant Powell, of the navy, with a small force of sailors and marines, had been ordered to proceed from Fort Pierce and examine the south lagoon of Indian river as far as Jupiter inlet; and while accomplishing this task, he discovered marks of recent Indian occupation, and immediately

went in pursuit. The foe was soon overtaken, and, turning upon their pursuers, proved to be far superior, both in numbers and supply of ammunition; a retreat was of course ordered, and the late sanguine attackers found safety in their boats.

General Jesup now transferred his command to Colonel Taylor, 1st infantry, and himself returned to Washington. His closing report was called for, and laid before Congress in its session of '38, and after a proper consideration of circumstances voted satisfactory. The general had been actively engaged in that unmanageable and thankless Florida service for nearly two years; had captured and secured some seven thousand of the irreconcilables—his policy being to avoid as much as possible the destruction of life; his field of operations had extended over more than five degrees of latitude, and to cover a country so vast he had found it necessary to establish no less than forty forts, working from a base at Charlotte's harbour by way of the Suwannee to St. Augustine, upwards of three hundred miles. The concluding paragraph of the report is particularly terse: "If" says the general, "our operations have fallen short of public expectation, it should be remembered that we were attempting that which no other army of our country had ever before been required to do. I and my predecessors in command were not only required to fight, beat, and drive the enemy before us, but to go into an unexplored wilderness and catch them. Neither Wayne, Harrison, nor Jackson was required to do this; and unless the objects to be accomplished resemble each other, there can be no just comparison as to the results."

Nothing of interest occurred in Florida for some time after the leaving of Jesup. Officers busied themselves with the minutiæ of affairs, awaiting the action of government in regard to important proceedings. On the 5th of April, 1839, General Macomb himself appeared on the scene of action, and visited successively the head-quarters of Colonel Taylor and other principal posts. The object of the commander was not, however, to suggest alterations or supplant authorities; his aim was altogether of a pacificatory character, he having sagaciously determined to eschew fighting and conquer by treaties. Or, rather, in the expressive phraseology of the newspapers, "he went there to be 'humbugged' in behalf of the United States," by a few shrewd individuals claiming to act for the Seminole tribe; but who, eventually, proved to be persons entirely unauthorized, and who were, probably, instigated to the agreement only on account of their latent preference for the comfortable provisioning and "hell-water" which they knew would be dealt out to them at the garrisons, to sharing in the precarious subsistence of their more patriotic brethren. At all events, the general was induced to enter into a negotiation with Chitto Tustennuggee and Blue Snake, by which they concluded the war, and agreed the Indians should remove at their earliest convenience, certainly, to that dreaded new home of theirs west of the Mississippi. General Macomb seems to have placed implicit confidence in the good faith and ability of these new negotiators; for he soon left the peninsula for Washington, and added one more to the list of reports that *the* war was finally ended.

Sad to say, the first fruits of this arrangement, by which the general-in-chief seems to have been completely beguiled, was a most lamentable disaster. On the 23d of July, 1839, a company of Colonel Harney's dragoons, being deceived by the plausible character of the treaty, encamped themselves carelessly upon the banks of the river Coleosahatchee. At midnight, in a storm, they were surprised and cut to pieces, nearly all being either killed or driven into the river. Directly subsequent to this new act in the tragedy, a proposition was made to import bloodhounds from Cuba, to assist in conquering the invincible handful of savages. Now be it understood, this project was an emanation entirely from the brains of a few

Floridians, and was by them attempted to be carried into effect; although at the time, so favourable an opportunity for getting up an exhibition of fictitious amaze and animadversion could not be let pass by that portion of the public press opposed to the existing administration of government.

About the 1st of January, 1840, a schooner chartered for the "horrible purpose" was despatched to Cuba by order of the governor of Florida, without the consent or knowledge of any acting United States' authorities; and presently returned, having on board *thirty-eight* bloodhounds, full-grown and well-conditioned. They were speedily put upon scent of divers Indian scouting-parties, but, strange to tell, from some cause or other disliking the service, they refused to answer the expectations of their importers, and proved utterly inefficient. Not a dog could be induced to operate at all against the Indians; the Seminoles in particular appeared to be a species of game the Cuban hounds were altogether unaccustomed to; and it would seem they had no desire to make rare additions to their previous knowledge in hunting, or form discursive acquaintances with new and strange objects—or lend their countenance in any way to such unusual speculations as they were now called upon to engage in.

Few instances are recorded of Indians exhibiting the tenderer feelings; but that they do sometimes so far forget themselves as to appear human, would seem to be evidenced in the following case, related in an extract of a letter from an officer serving in Florida about these days:—"We lately played the *grab game* with another Indian encampment, coming upon them silently, in the night, with a superior force. Leaving Fort Jupiter about 2 o'clock in the morning, we arrived at their village just previous to the breaking of day, and took, without the slightest difficulty, five hundred and twelve of the banditti. Colonel Bankhead is now in pursuit of another body of them under Sam Jones, and will, without doubt, shortly overtake, surround, and capture the whole of them. Colonel Twiggs is in command towards the Atlantic, and has his head-quarters at Garey's Ferry, from whence, we understand, he is sending out forces sufficient to clear that section of country in the shortest space of time. But I must not forget to mention to you a singular, though perhaps trifling, circumstance, which surprised us a great deal—being nothing less than an Indian exhibiting feeling!—and a chief and great "brave" at that. You might have learned, heretofore, that the renowned "Alligator" and his band delivered themselves up at Fort Bassinger on the 4th of last April; well, the peculiarities of the case were as follows: Some six weeks previous to the consummation of that event, a scouting party of ours chanced to overtake a small body of flying Indians, consisting mostly of squaws and children—which were of course captured and brought in—when one of the children, a sprightly little girl of six years, proved to be the "papoose," and only child, it was said, of Alligator. This chief had latterly so chosen his position, and disposed his force, as to be for the time unapproachable; occupying with light canoes the miry, shallow creeks, and matted brakes upon their borders: a flag was sent him by our general, which he fired upon, and refused to recognize; but it seems he afterwards relented, for he came in alone and requested a talk. No accommodation of difficulties appeared likely to be arrived at, when, at the conclusion of the argument, his little daughter was shown in and given up to him. Instantly the fierce savage was unmanned; he took the child up in his arms, and embraced her with tears; and in less than an hour after, had despatched messengers with a command to his troop to come indiscriminately in and surrender, which they did, though with manifest reluctance, and no little misgiving."

In fine, this war lingered along for nearly six years; it was only disposed of hardly, and by piecemeal, with an expense of much suffering and sorrow to all in any way therewith connected; it cost the United States upwards of fifty millions of money, besides the lives of a vast number of

men, as well as some of her ablest officers and most valuable citizens. We can now only regret the past, and prepare to guard against anything of a like nature for the future. Lieutenant Reynolds, of Marines, was despatched by government from Charleston, South Carolina, on the 21st of April, having in charge the principal chiefs and head men of the Seminoles, with their families, all at length gathered together on that dreaded and so long delayed voyage to the distant west. In the same month the House of Representatives voted a sword to Colonel Henderson, commandant U. S. M. C., for the able manner in which he had conducted the operations of his corps, whose services he had volunteered, and headed in person through an arduous campaign in Florida. Colonel Worth, an officer already somewhat honourably distinguished in the history of his country's struggles, was deputed to wind up the details of this painful and unprecedented affair. In his hands Florida again resumed her course of improvement; and under his superintendence her soil was finally relieved of those terrible bands of misguided red-men, who had so long and so fearfully scourged, without discrimination, the innocent and the guilty within her borders.

In this year Congress adopted several important measures; some of which, being considered of a political character, bade fair to set adverse schools of politicians together by the ears. The "Distribution of the surplus revenue among the states," for instance, became a law; and while many citizens were warmly in favour of such a disposition of the public money, and fully convinced of the entire correctness and utility of the act, others were as completely persuaded to the contrary. Some states by their legislatures went so far, even, as to refuse to accept of their portion of the public funds; while the little but spirited commonwealth of New-Hampshire sneeringly made a present to the general government of the amount falling to her.

Another cause of complaint was the celebrated "specie circular." Owing to large losses incurred in the land office, from the depreciated character of western and southern paper currency (which, by the way, was daily growing worse, and spreading a panic in every direction), the government thought it necessary in self-defence to adopt some such measure. Accordingly, on the 11th of July, 1836, the receivers of public money were instructed by a circular from the Treasury Department, to receive nothing but gold and silver, or that which was immediately convertible, in payment for public lands. No sales were allowed to be made, either, except in a limited degree, and to those who should become, within a given period, actual settlers. This was considered by many an arbitrary infringement upon the customary way of doing things; a bold violation of an established practice—and therefore in the highest degree reprehensible. Indeed, so great was the clamour for repeal of this obnoxious regulation, that it was presently found necessary to be very greatly modified.

"The removal of the deposits" was another political firebrand now finally disposed of. Congress, after long agony, concluded to sanction the formerly much-reprobated procedure; and thus was General Jackson, who "assumed the responsibility" of the act—regardless alike of remonstrances and threats, and they were certainly bestowed upon him with a plentifulness the most remarkable—finally exonerated from all weight of blame.

In December, a disastrous fire broke out in Washington, which consumed a number of public as well as private buildings. The United States' general post-office, and that of Washington city, with the greater part of their contents, were destroyed, as also the patent office, with the whole of its invaluable collection of rare and curious models of every description.

One thought for the departed.—In Florida, this year, of massacre, pestilence, and famine, a thousand men were slain, with proportionate women and children. At his seat near Montpelier, Virginia, June 28th, ex-pres-

ident James Madison died, æ 85. At Red-Hook, near New-York, Edward Livingston, late Secretary of State for the United States, minister to France, etc. In New-York, General Jacob Morton. In Brooklyn, New-York, Colonel J. M. Gamble, of the Marine Corps. At Sandy Hill, New-York, Lieutenant-governor Nathaniel Pitcher. In Pennsylvania, æ 88, Bishop White, of the Episcopal Church. On Staten Island, September 13th, at the age of 81, Colonel Aaron Burr, celebrated as a politician. In Indiana, Colonel Francis Vigo, celebrated as a patriot. In Texas, at the massacre of the Alamo, March 1st, colonels Bowie, Travis, and Crockett. In Delaware, Governor Bennett. Of the United States' Senate, R. H. Goldsborough, from Maryland. Of the House of Representatives, Messrs. Dickson, of Mississippi; Coffee, of Georgia; and Kinnard, of Indiana. In London, George Coleman *the younger*, aged 74. In Manchester, England, Madame Malibran, vocalist, æ 28. In Edinburgh, Sir J. Sinclair In Germany, Baron N. M. Rothschild, *millionaire*, of London. In Rome, "the holy city," Cardinal Cheverus, formerly of Boston. In Paris, l'Abbé Sieyes, æ 88. In France, during the month of November, sixty-six persons by suicide. At Illyria, in exile, Charles X., formerly king of France.

A. D. 1837.—On the 4th of March, Mr. Van Buren, of New-York, and Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, became president and vice-president of the United States. This result, although the election was narrowly contested, was looked upon as a triumph of the Jackson-democracy; and, indeed, Mr. Van Buren's administration was, in its general policy, a continuation of that of his predecessor. His cabinet consisted of John Forsyth, of Georgia, Secretary of State; Levi Woodbury, of New-Hampshire, Secretary of the Treasury; Joel R. Poinsett, of South-Carolina, Secretary of War; James K. Paulding, of New-York, Secretary of the Navy; Amos Kendall, of Kentucky, Postmaster General; Benjamin F. Butler, of New-York, Attorney General. The great aim of the "favourite son of New-York," seemed unquestionably to follow in the footsteps of the "old hero;" and to an undue and determined pressure upon the people of a certain democratic measure, having in view a further "reform of the currency," Mr. Van Buren owes his subsequent political overthrow. The whole strength of the party proved insufficient to sustain the weight of his fatal sub-treasury scheme.

As if to add to the confusion of the times, no sooner had this administration assumed the reins, than the country was overwhelmed by one of the most severe commercial revulsions ever known. Everywhere in the nation a fictitious enlargement of business had been permitted, and now the reaction, which in all such cases, sooner or later must come, took place with fearful force. As early as 1833 a derangement had been felt, and a further extension of business upon an uncertain foundation was then by all men of moderation deprecated; but the operations were nevertheless continued—immense importations of foreign goods were made—and real estate, especially lots in cities and towns, went up a hundred fold, not to say in many cases a thousand fold, beyond its intrinsic value. A multitude of state banks, which had been created upon the winding up of the mammoth United States' institution, were likewise involved in the manifold speculations, and a consequent excessive expansion of their currency ensued, contributing to make matters much worse. Operations of great magnitude were undertaken by companies of various discriptions, chartered and unchartered; enormous public works were commenced, and states as well as smaller compacts were involved. Even staid and sober individuals—men holding offices of trust and large amounts of government funds—were deluded into the mad vortex of the day, and all committed to their charge was speedily dissipated.

On the 10th of May, the banks of the city of New-York suspended specie payments; and those in the country on every side soon after fol-

lowed the example. The fever of speculation had reached its crisis; and the immense and unprecedented "panic of '37" was inevitably the result So vast and unusual were its ramifications, that the interposition of Congress was considered alone sufficient to save the country from indiscriminate bankruptcy. As it was, during the short space of three weeks, in the city of New-York, not less than two hundred and fifty houses stopped payment; and a list of failures, including only the more considerable, and omitting a multitude of lesser note, exhibits a total amount of more than sixty millions of dollars. "All credit, all confidence, was at an end."

The general government became entangled in the unusual embarrassment, as its own funds were for the most part parcelled out among the repudiating banks. In this state of things, the president summoned an extra session of Congress, which commenced on the 4th of September; and here the first trial of strength between parties took place, in the House of Representatives, on the occasion of electing a speaker—the administration proving victorious by a small majority, in the re-election of Mr. Polk, of Tennessee. The president, in his message, confined himself strictly to the proposition of measures for relief of the country. In accordance with his recommendation, and for the purpose of guarding against any disagreeable contingency, Congress passed laws immediately for preserving inviolate the integrity of government. The finance committee of the senate reported four bills, viz:

1. To suspend payment to the states of the fourth instalment of surplus revenue, until the 1st of January, 1839.
2. To provide for the issue of ten millions of treasury notes, to be receivable in payment of public dues.
3. To authorize the warehousing in bond of imported goods, for a term not exceeding three years.
4. To effect a separation of the fiscal operations of government from those of corporations or individuals.

These measures were readily sanctioned by the senate—but in the house, the last-mentioned one failed.

The extra session concluded its labours and adjourned on the 16th of October. Six weeks thereafter, on the 1st Monday in December, as usual, the members reassembled, and commenced their regular session. The president, in his opening message, still dwelt upon the currency, and pressed with some considerable pertinacity his favourite measure "to regulate the keeping and disbursement of the public funds." The gentlemen of the house, as if to relieve the sad and monotonous character of their proceedings, presently broke into an entirely novel and exhilerating course of action. At the commencement of its session, the House had passed a resolution that all petitions relative to the subject of *slavery* should be laid on the table without being read, and without further notice of any kind. During one of the sittings of the House, Mr. *Adams*, who had been very much opposed to that resolution, thus addressed the chair:

"I hold in my hand, sir, a paper purporting to be signed by *slaves*; will it be in order, under the rules of the House, to present it?"

The effect produced by this question upon the members from the slave-holding states, needs not to be described. A tumult arose; some were for expelling Mr. Adams outright; others were satisfied with the milder expedient of a vote of censure. Many were the resolutions tendered to the House, some with and some without preambles, but all denouncing the man who would dare to present a petition from slaves, or one praying for the abolition of slavery. The debate grew warmer and warmer, the resolutions fell fast one upon the other, and several hours already had elapsed, when Mr. A., a tranquil listener all this time, and as if in nowise concerned in the matter, rose quietly and observed,

"That he had only asked if it would be in order to present the paper—that so far from being for the abolition of slavery, it prayed for its continuance—and that, in addition, it prayed that he, Mr. Adams, and all the other abolitionists in Congress, might be expelled therefrom."

Upon this statement, the uproar was increased tenfold; the defenders of the twenty-first rule became sensible of the ludicrous nature of the whole affair, and endeavoured to quiet the storm, and turn the tables, by insisting upon "the dignity of Congress" and so forth.

Incredible as it may seem, the debate arising out of this affair lasted three days longer, and at last ended in a compromise, when it was voted by a large majority, that slaves had no right to petition, and that any attempt to present such a petition would be deemed disorderly, and a direct violation of the constitution. It appeared subsequently, that the paper creating this disturbance had been got up in Virginia, and was signed by some free blacks, and transmitted to J. Q. Adams for the purpose merely of insulting him.

Washington, this season, was all astir with novelties. Early in the year, a deputation of "braves" from the Sioux, and other tribes of the Far West, arrived, as well on a visit to the seat of government as for the purpose of concluding a treaty of peace and amity with the United States. They of course attracted no little attention in the city of "magnificent distances;" indeed, they were altogether as remarkable a collection of the sons of the forest, as had perhaps ever before been seen there together at one time. They partook in an unusual degree of the character of "lions;" being represented as thinking themselves of very considerable consequence, if not in a mental, certainly in a physical point of view. At all events, they bestowed an extraordinary degree of pains upon their personal appearance, whenever about to attend one of the many levees to which they were invited. Paint, of the most glaring colors, was profusely bestowed upon their herculean frames and brawny faces—the former being about as nearly denuded as that of a fashionable belle at a ball—and particular care being taken, usually, to mark a ferocious black ring around either their mouth or one eye. The names of these dandy-savages, as, indeed, those of others, are considered among themselves indicative of character: they are at least curious, and are here appended, as copied from the treaty with our government which they signed in Washington prior to leaving:

The Upsetting Wind $\overset{\text{his}}{\underset{\text{mark.}}{\times}}$; Grey Iron ×; Big Thunder ×; Walking Buffalo ×; Good Road ×; Standing Cloud ×; Afloat ×; White Man ×; Iron Cloud ×; He that comes last ×; He that shakes the earth ×; The Son of Handsome Voice ×; The Dancer ×; The Big Iron ×; He that runs after the clouds ×; The Red Road ×; The Bad Hail ×; The Eagle Head ×; He that stands on both sides ×; The Walking Circle ×; The Red Lodge ×.

At the same time were visiting the Union, under the charge of Major Pilcher, of the war department, a number of motley groups of the Winnebago and other tribes of that same once important red race which is now so fast dwindling down from former blood-stained pre-eminence, never to rise again. A list of the principal chiefs, with the name of each in his native tongue, as well as its translation, has been deemed a philological rarity of sufficient merit to be preserved from that oblivion which waits upon its originals:

YANKTON SIOUX.

Ha-sa-za, "The Elk Horn;" *Ah-zha-li*, "The Forked Horn;" *Mon-to-he*, "The Crane;" *Zer-ya-sa*, "The Warrior;" *Ta-ka-o*, "He that inflicted the first wound;" *Pal-a-ni-a-pa-pi*, "Struck by a Riccara;" *E-mun-ni*, "He that comes for something."

IOWAS.

Nan-che-hsng-ga, "The No Heart;" *Ne-o-mun-ne*, "The Walking Rain;" *Wah-che-mon-ne*, "The Partizan;" "*Tah-ro-hon*, "Plenty of Meat."

SACS OF MISSOURI.

Ar-ça-qua, "The Porcupine;" *Cha-ca-pe-wa*, "The Standing Day;" *Po-ca-ma*, "The Plumb;" *No-po-cah-wa*, "The Wolf;" *Am-mo-ni*, "The Swallow;" *Haw-che-ke-sog-e*, "He who strikes in war."

GRAND PAWNEE BAND.

Shouk-ka-ke-he-gah, "The Horse Chief;" *La-char-ce-tau-rooks*, "The Fearless;" *La-doo-kee-ah*, "Buffalo Bull;" *Ah-shaw-wah-rooks-te*, "The Medicine Horse."

PAWNEE TAPAGE BAND.

La-kee-too-we-ra-sha, "The Little Chief;" *La-pa-koo-ra-cha*, "Principal Partizan;" *Loo-ra-we-re-coo*, "Bird that goes to war;" *Sa-ta-coosh-ca-roo-mah-ah*, "Partizan that sings."

REPUBLICAN PAWNEE BAND.

Ah-shaw-la-coots-ah, "Mole in the forehead;" *La-shaw-le-staw-hicks*, "The Man Chief;" *La-we-re-coo-re-shaw-we*, "The War Chief;" *Ye-ah-ke-ra-le-re-coo*, "The Cheyenne."

PAWNEE LOUPS.

Le-shaw-loo-la-le-hoo, "The Big Chief;" *So-loc-to-hoo-la*, "Handsome Pipe in his hand;" *La-wa-he-coots-ta-shaw-no*, "The Brave Chief;" *Shar-e-tar-rush*, "The Ill-natured Man."

OTTOE TRIBE.

Waw-eo-ne-sah, "He who surrounds;" *No-way-ke-sog-e*, "He who strikes two at once;" *Kaw-no-way-waw-nap*, "Loose pipe stem;" *We-kee-roo-taw*, "He who exchanges."

OMAHAW TRIBE.

Ki-kee-gah-wa-shu-she, "The Brave Chief;" *Om-pa-tong-gah*, "The Big Elk;" *Sha-da-nou-ne*, "There he goes;" *Nom-bah-mon-ne*, "He who walks double."

Much has been said of the injustice and rapacity of the United States' government in wresting from the aborigines their lands, and forcing the removal of the "unfortunate people" beyond the Mississippi. Fault-finders are generally wrong; those who have grumbled upon this subject particularly so. By reference to state papers, at Washington, it will be found that the utmost value has always been paid the savages for the relinquishment of their possessions east of the great river—and their comfortable establishment upon the western side in all cases guaranteed them. The Sioux, on this occasion, proposed to transfer to the United States what claim they had to about five millions of acres east of the "father of waters;" and in consideration therefor, received, in proper instalments, $1,000,000. The Winnebagoes, shortly after, disposed also of their right and title, except for hunting purposes, to a strip running back twenty miles from the river, and received for the same, the very comfortable bonus of $1,500,000. A few years previous to this, the general government paid to the Cherokees, upon their leaving the state of Georgia, $5,000,000! The tribe at that time numbering so few that the average for each man was not less than five hundred dollars—besides a free transportation to an equally rich and extensive domain farther west, in the which they were comfortably established; and their freedom from interference or aggression at the hands of hostile or more powerful tribes was made doubly certain, by their being still publicly recognized as under the protection of

the United States. Yet, what an uproar was there raised on that occasion! Scarcely an opponent of the president or his party, but at once denounced, in terms the most unqualified, the cruelty, barbarism and injustice of the administration, in inducing in those unsophisticated and simple Indians a determination, for filthy lucre's sake, to "desert their father's bones!"

Michigan was at this session of Congress admitted a state; making the twenty-sixth, and twice the original number declaring for independence in the year '76—doubling the number in half a century, and trebling the population. Messrs. Lyon and Norvell appeared as senators from the new state, and being duly qualified, took their seats. Mr. Crary was her first member in the House of Representatives.

In the pleasant town of Alton, Illinois, on the Upper Mississippi, a riot, resulting in bloodshed, unhappily occurred in the month of November. It appears, that the Rev. Mr. Lovejoy, an *abolitionist*, with a few others holding similar opinions, had resolved upon establishing a paper in this place, for the dissemination of religious principles and their peculiar views. The majority of citizens being opposed to such a measure, duly notified the reverend gentleman and his friends, that they would not be allowed to carry into effect their intentions. Instead of regarding this expression of "public opinion," they inconsiderately determined to continue their operations. The press and printing materials were landed, and carefully stored in a large stone warehouse near the wharf, in which it was understood Mr. L. and his friends had determined to make a stand, and were prepared with arms and ammunition, to defend their property. Night had no sooner arrived, than the populace, with shouts and missiles, made their appearance before the stronghold of the misguided religionists; here they demanded entrance and a parley; which being of course refused, they commenced, in some sort, an assault upon the building. Now, to complete the folly of its inmates, a shot was fired from an upper window, which took effect in the *mob*, mortally wounding one said to be merely a spectator. Fireballs were thereupon furnished to the assailants, who hurled them from every direction upon the roof of the store-house, and a fire was speedily kindled in several places. Fire-arms were also procured, and the slaying of the stranger was soon to be avenged. Perceiving too late that his fortress was untenable, Mr. L. attempted to escape—but fell, before taking many steps, pierced with bullets. His associates yielded themselves up, and were suffered to depart unharmed; but the mischievous press and types, which had mainly caused the trouble, were instantly carted down to the river's bank, and, being broken in pieces, were sunk, some forty fathoms deep.

Treaties were this year concluded with a number of half-civilized and barbarous nations; i. e., the American Indians, modern Greece, Siam, and Muscat. By the very liberal and enlightened interference of the ruling European powers, Greece had lately been rescued frem the unwarrantable usurpation and galling thraldom of the Turks. A government had been organized for the Greeks, and King Otho set upon the throne. An accredited agent of the United States had been established in Athens, near the court of his majesty; and a commercial arrangement was now negotiated between the two countries, reflecting honour in a high degree upon the liberal policy which dictated it.

At the royal city of Bankok, in the kingdom of Siam, a treaty of amity and commerce was concluded, between Edmund Roberts on the part of the United States of America, and Chau Phaya Phraklang, first minister of state for his magnificent majesty of the kingdom aforesaid. It was there done on the last day of the fourth month of the year Pi-marong-chakara-sok ("of the dragon"), and here finally ratified by his excellency Martin Van Buren, on the 24th of June.

With the sublime Sultan of Muscat, Seyed Syeed Bin, another equally important negotiation was entered into, at the royal palace, on the sixth day of the Moon Samada Alaured, in the year Allhajra; and an agreement was finally effected, affording much satisfaction to all parties. Various presents of importance were transmitted by his affable majesty Seyed Syeed Bin, to his excellency Martin Van Buren: but as they could not in consonance with the principles of this government be accepted by him, they were partly placed in the National Institute at Washington, and otherwise properly disposed of. A due acknowledgment being rendered in form, the friendly feeling existing between the respective nations may now be considered firmly established.

Obituary.—The ordeal of death by water prevailed to a fearful extent, about the close of the last and beginning of this year. The ships Bristol and Mexico were wrecked upon Far Rockaway and Hempstead beach, and one hundred and thirty-nine lives lost, though the vessels were within a cable's length of land. In the case of the latter vessel, the unfortunate passengers were mostly *frozen to death* before yielding themselves to the raging surf. Men fell from the rigging stiff, into the waves, and were washed upon shore with their eyes open, staring frightfully into the countenance of the beholder. Women lay upon the sand hardened into ice, with their infants frozen to their breasts; the faces of the children being drawn awry, with tear-drops still upon their cheeks, as if they perished in the act of crying. One little girl was picked up holding a half-eaten cake to her lips—another with her knees bent, and hands clasped upward. A stalwart negro, apparently a sailor, was found with a most agonized and terrible expression of countenance—as if his soul had fled with cursing and defiance. The steamship Home, from New-York to Charleston, South-Carolina, was wrecked on Cape Hatteras, in July, and ninety lives were sacrificed—an extremely limited number escaping. The ship was entirely new, but so slightly made, that in the short space of an hour from the time of her striking, not a vestige of the vesssel remained visible. Died, in June, Hon. Nathaniel Macon, of North-Carolina, æ 83. At Schenectady, Ex-Governor Yates, of New-York. Also, Hon. Henry R. Storrs, of New-York. In Maryland, Governor Kent, æ 58. At Boston, T. G. Fessenden, editor. In Paris, Major Henry Lee, of Virginia. In Windsor Castle, 20th June, William IV. of England, æ 73. In London, Lord William Seymour; General Sir John Smith, and Admiral Dacres. Also, Joseph Grimaldi, Esq., "the clown." In Sweden, Gustavus Adolphus IV., ex-king.

A. D. 1838.—In the executive message to Congress at the beginning of this year, alluding to the pecuniary embarrassments of the nation the year previous, the president remarked: "The industry and prudence of the citizens, are gradually relieving them from the disabilities under which so many of them have laboured; judicious legislation, and the natural and boundless resources of the country, have afforded wise and timely aid to private enterprise; and, together with the activity always characteristic of the people, have already, in a great degree, caused the business of the land to resume its usual and profitable channel."

In relation further to financial affairs, his excellency took occasion again warmly to urge upon public attention that celebrated Sub-Treasury system, which was intended to provide so effectually for the collection, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue. By this favourite measure, the president designed the public money should be withdrawn altogether from the keeping of banks, and placed in the hands of certain receivers-general, to be appointed in various quarters of the Union, and subject to the order and control of the Treasurer of the United States. On the 29th of March, the Senate *again* passed the bill, by a vote of twenty-seven to twenty-five, this being a lesser majority by four votes

than it received on the previous test. In the House, after a long and stormy debate, on the 22d of April the bill was again negatived, one hundred and twenty-five nays against one hundred and eleven yeas declaring it for this session hopelessly lost.

On the 13th of August, the banks throughout the country concluded, generally, to resume specie payments; but in the course of sixty days thereafter, the moneyed institutions of Philadelphia resolved again to suspend, and their example was followed by the interior banks of Pennsylvania, as well as those of most of the states south and west. The banks of New-York, however, and New-England, continued to pay specie, and fulfil all demands against them.

A special messenger was despatched by government this year, to London, for the purpose of inquiring into and settling up a somewhat curious affair. James Smithson, an Englishman, wealthy and eccentric, or rather philanthropic, dying without near kin, it was found upon examination of his will that he had bequeathed the great balance of his property, £100,000, *to the American government*, for the purpose of founding in the United States an institution "for the increase and diffusion of useful knowledge among men." Although difficulty was apprehended with the courts of law in England relative to this bequest, none was experienced. Distant connexions of the very liberal and worthy testator raised objections, it is true, and attempted to contest the validity of the will by asserting a want of sane mind in its maker; but the British probate judges, as well as the master of the rolls refused to entertain their complaints, and an order was finally given for the transfer of funds to the American agent, in compliance with the wishes of the deceased philanthropist. It may appear strange, that nothing has yet been done to carry into effect the grand object of this munificent donation; many years have elapsed since the receival of the money, yet the combined wisdom and discrimination of the great body of gentlemen composing both houses of Congress, has only been able to place the cash at interest. Mr. Van Buren, during his administration, called upon the learned of the nation for their written opinions and advice in this matter, but no one was able to submit a satisfactory plan for the proper fulfilment of the specifications and desires of the truly great Mr. Smithson.

Troubles on the Canadian frontier now began to attract considerable attention. For some years previous to this, the Lower Canada legislature had been annually embroiled by means of a close and acrid division between the ancient French, or liberal, and modern English, or royalist parties. Monsieur Papineau, speaker of the Assembly, was at the same time editor of a violent anti-government newspaper; and his friends being latterly in majority, had refused to vote the usual supplies for support of her majesty's appointed officers. This state of things could not last. An outbreak occurred in the city of Montreal in November, 1837, between two parties of the rival populace, in which blood was shed; the military attempted to quell the disturbance, and were resisted with violence; drums beat to arms in every French quartier directly, and the liberalists marshalled themselves to the number of near three thousand, under Papineau and one T. S. Brown, a brawling sort of person, an American, who had taken an active part in the original street affray. They commenced fortifying themsleves in an old French fort near St. Denis; but presently sustained a vigorous attack from the queen's forces, which, however, were speedily compelled to retreat with considerable loss. The next affair resulted very differently; Colonel Wetherall attacked the insurgents at St. Charles, and completely routed them; his own loss was but trifling, while that of the adverse party was two hundred killed, many wounded and prisoners, and the town which harboured them destroyed. The "rebel" leaders, including Doctors Wolfred Nelson, and Cote, escaped, and a

reward was set upon their heads. The fearful close of the rebellion in that region, was at St. Eustache—where the houses in which the deluded liberalists had taken refuge were surrounded in the night and burned over them, while those who attempted to escape from the flames were shot down, or bayonetted without mercy.

While these things were transacting in the Lower Province, the lurid glare of similar scenes was bursting forth in the Upper. William L. Mackenzie, for a number of years editor of a factious paper in Toronto, was ordered to be arrested on behalf of the government. Receiving timely information of this proceeding, he made his escape, and at once raised the standard of revolt. It is said a majority of the citizens of that place and neighbourhood were decidedly in favour of remodelling the system by which they were controlled; and as there was at that time but a handful of British troops in the garrison or at the nearest posts, the city might in all probability have been seized without the least difficulty, and Governor Head himself made a prisoner. But alas, for the insurrectionists and all their new-blown hopes! although a thousand men at once responded to the call of the agitator, and spiritedly marched to his camp, a short distance back of the city, the all-important time was spent in idle braggadocio and dallying, and the cause forever ruined. Thore lagged the "rebels" and their coward leader, within sight, almost, of a well-supplied arsenal and the most admirable fortifications, until a fresh body of troops, with an active commander, had time to arrive from below. Thenceforward the history of their operations presents nothing but a "stale, unprofitable" account. Colonel Moodie was shot, it is true, in a sort of running fight; and this event, perhaps, so frightened or so satisfied the riotous revolters, that they threw down their arms and opposition and quietly submitted to their former masters.

The subsequent attempts of the few who had refused the proffered amnesty, or were inimicable to it, are only characterized by the extremities of imprudence and folly: but as the American government was nearly involved in a war with Great Britain thereby, a passing review of the events, may be considered worth while. At the outset, we may remark that, perhaps, no misfortune so great as success could by any possibility have waited upon the motley company of enthusiasts who now, for a short period, so often attempted the invasion of the Canadas. The game was in reality not worth the waste of powder.

About the middle of December, 1837, twenty-eight men, principally Canadians, with one Rensellaer Van Rensellaer, an American, and William Lyon Mackenzie, the afore-mentioned leader, went upon Navy Island and established anew a camp. Here they issued their manifestoes, calling upon the patriots of Canada, and all others who might be friendly to their cause, to join them. In the space of three weeks, between three and four hundred volunteers appeared; some coming from the United States and some from Canada, while all brought with them a greater or lesser supply of arms and ammunition. On the 29th of December, the steamboat Caroline was transferred from Buffalo to Schlosser landing, the design being to ply her between that point and Navy Island as a ferry-boat. For one day she passed back and forth, and was moored at night before the warehouse at Schlosser; but about midnight the watch on board was alarmed by the approach of a boat with muffled oars, apparently full of men. The Caroline was boarded and her crew quickly overpowered, one or two being killed and several wounded; she was then cut from her fastenings and towed out into the stream, where she was set on fire and deserted by her captors. The boat drifted slowly down towards the rapids, while the increasing light of its conflagration shot up in flaming streams, until all was finally lost in the fearful plunge over the Niagara. Twelve persons connected with the boat were reported missing; supposed to have

been killed or wounded in the attack and lost with the boat in going over the falls. The next morning, but a few burnt and charred remains of the vessel were discernible floating with the eddies beneath the cataract.

This affair was the instant cause of difficulty between chief authorities at Washington and the English chargé d'affaires. Colonel M'Nab, commanding her Britannic majesty's forces at Chippewa, had avowed his responsibility for the cutting out of the Caroline—and a public meeting at Buffalo thereupon demanded reparation for the injury at the hands of government. Mr. Secretary Forsyth without delay intimated to Mr. Fox, the British envoy, that redress, and a discountenance of the proceeding, would be necessary. The royal minister at first stammered a little in attempting justification: but it was soon made plain that the "rebels" had in possession a quantity of arms belonging to the American government—and then it became his turn to assume the style dictatorial, and tell what would be necessary for Mr. Forsyth to do. President Van Buren then issued a proclamation, denouncing altogether the revolutionary movement, and calling upon all good citizens in the United States strictly to preserve their neutrality. Generals Scott and Wool, with United States' marshal Garrow, and a body of regulars, were sent to guard the frontier and preserve the integrity of the United States. The public property which had been abstracted was speedily recovered, and important arrests of the insurgents made—though this last measure was rendered of little effect by their being all bailed out of durance by their infatuated friends, whatever the amount of security demanded.

The patriot encampment upon Navy Island was sustained just a month, and then broken up. It was reported a large force of British was stationed at the village opposite, and batteries upon both sides of the river were erected, balls and shells being at intervals cast idly back and forth. No attack, however, was made, and nothing accomplished by either party. The patriot commanders in the middle of January went into retiracy, having with much judgment commended the forces under them to their own discretion. But the excitement was not by any means allayed, or the subject allowed to rest. A Mr. T. J. Sutherland assumed the vacant generalship, and forthwith embarked largely in the proclamation business; his documents were published from no particular head-quarters, but all the world was notified, in the loudest possible manner, that the downfall of British rule in Canada was at hand; and all those whose hearts were now burning to participate in the glorious enterprise of effecting the same, were called upon to come and join his standard, or the golden opportunity would be forever lost.

Some hundreds of individuals were found ready to volunteer for the new army, and we next hear of their pitching upon a small island for rendezvouz, which was situated in the river near Detroit, and known by the imposing name of Gibraltar. Names are not things, however, and this island was quite unlike its dignified patronymic; for, although from five hundred to one thousand fighting men, with three hundred and ninety stand of arms, were stationed upon it, they thought proper to evacuate the premises without striking a blow. They made use of their boats to escape to the American main-land, upon hearing that a large force of British regulars was about to attack them from the other side. Colonel Worth, with his command, stood ready upon the shore to receive them, and in the coolest and most gentlemanly manner possible, deprived them of their arms and ammunition, and then permitted their departure, in perfect freedom, whithersoever they listed. This interesting occurrence took place about the 24th of January.

About the 1st of February, it was reported in Detroit that the patriots had re-organized anew, and were now about to make a sudden and over-

whelming attack upon Fort Malden. All the border from Michilimackinac to Buffalo on one side, and from Sandwich to Lake Memphremagog on the other, was consequently in a state of uproar and rising. A British colonel, Prince, becoming highly excited by the thousand rumours that reached him from every side, marched with hot haste, first from Sandwich down to Amherstsburg, and then from Amherstsburg back again to Sandwich. At this latter place, most sad to relate, he encountered and captured a number of Canadian citizens under arms, without his command. Instantly they were seized, non-resisting, and the perfection of brutality was by him upon them exercised—happily for human nature, without being countenanced, eventually, by his superior officers. The helpless wretches whom he had taken, were ordered, without a show of trial or inquiry, to "run for their lives" between his columns of grenadiers—and of course they fell, before proceeding many yards, riddled with wounds.

While such disgraceful events were permitted to transpire in Canada, we are happy to state that very different scenes were being enacted on the opposite shore, though having precisely the same end in view, viz., the quelling of the "rebellion." The American general, Brady, had apprehended a considerable body of the infatuated people under arms, in the excited neighbourhood, and, after depriving them of their warlike weapons, in which certainly consisted their power of doing harm, sent them quietly about their business. General Wool, also, without the spilling of blood, in the month of March, as far down as Alburgh Springs, in Vermont, captured the celebrated leaders, Drs. Nelson and Cote, with six hundred well equipped men-at-arms. In the vicinity of Detroit the patriot leaders, Dr. Duncombe and General Alexander M'Leod, with Colonels Theller and Dodge, had either been taken and held strongly to bail for good behaviour, or forced to a constant flight for safety.

The thirsters after glory were in reality in a sad predicament. Their quondam general, Sutherland, having the largest share of bravery, with the merest modicum of wisdom, was twice apprehended—the second time in violation of his bonds—and he was consequently transferred to a Toronto prison, to await there for a brief space, a trial with but one apparently possible termination—the gallows. He was, with a few others, tried summarily for invasion, treason, etc., found guilty, and sentenced to be hung. The apparition of death in such a shocking form, staring him so closely in the face, was too much for even his quintescent bravery: and so he attempted to escape the dreadful doom by a resort to suicide. Alas, for even that most pitiable of priviliges! it was denied him; he was discovered in a state of syncope in his cell, after having opened his veins with a bit of rusty iron. Neither the grim monster death, nor the grim British lion, were yet to be thus foiled and cheated. The soi-disant general was immediately placed under the most careful medical attendance, and all his wants with the utmost kindness seen to, in order that he might at an early day be brought back into a proper condition for hanging. His associates in crime and at trial, Lount, Matthews, &c., suffered in pursuance with sentence, on the 12th day of April. The execution of Mr. Sutherland being necessarily postponed, and his drooping spirits reinfused with new life by means of the cordials and attention received in her majesty's hospital, a furtive hope supplanted his despair. He proposed to himself an escape, and to his captors a negotiation: and in this connexion he really exhibited, for the first time, some considerable traits of generalship. He most earnestly and vigorously asserted the existence of a vastly ramified and astonishing plot for the entire and complete subversion of the then order of things in Canada; of the details of this wonderful plan he proclaimed himself a sort of sole depositary—and promised, on the honour of a gentleman, if he should be speedily reprieved, to reveal the whole matter to the queen's government. This *chef d'œuvre* in

tactics proved sufficient; he was first respited, and then released. But of what particular description were the extraordinary developements made on the important occasion, or whom they implicated, remains to this day a profound secret; probably his statements componently embraced something unique—if not alarming.

On the 30th of May, and we are pained to record it, a most shameful piracy grew out of this excitement. The Robert Peel, a new and valuable steamer mostly owned in Canada, and plying between Kingston and Ogdensburgh, or other ports on the lake or river, was robbed and burnt. The boat was taking in wood, in the night, at a small island in the St. Lawrence, near French creek, when she was attacked and boarded by a gang of vagabonds supposed to be under the command of one Bill Johnson, who aspired to the title of "Buccaneer of the Lakes," and opposer of the power of the British crown. The steamer had on board this trip a considerable amount of money, in charge of her captain, though but a small crew and few passengers; the number of the attacking party being greatly superior, rendered resistance of no avail, so the vessel was quietly rifled of its moveables of value and then set on fire and abandoned. It is true that the United States' authorities exerted themselves with commendable vigour to ferret out the active agents in this disgraceful outrage: and they were finally taken, and tried at length and with much tedium, at Watertown, in New-York, from which place they were sentenced to the state prison for different terms of years.

Fortunately for appearances, on the part of the Americans, the next affair between the British and the "patriots" took place entirely within the Canadian limits. About the 12th of June, in a neighbourhood known by the name of Short Hills, some twelve miles back of Chippewa, there chanced to be assembled the unprecedented number of two thousand of the individuals declaring for a new constitution. Between some few blustering members of this goodly company as to numbers, and one or two drunken soldiers of the other side of the question, at a tavern, a dispute waxed warm, and presently from words broke out into a hot affray at fisticuffs. Strange as it may appear, although this body of *two thousand* were in shocking bad plight as regards arms and accoutrements (owing principally to the so-often unkind interference of the United States' governmental forces), they really did manage to capture and hold *one hundred* well armed and equipped and mounted English lancers. This triumph of the insurgents, however, so pricked up the indignation and aroused the wrath of the lion of St. George, that he sprang with ireful bounds all suddenly upon the necks of his heroic disturbers, to their utter discomfiture. Some were destroyed, some taken, and a great many put to flight. General John J. Parker, formerly of Utica, New-York, was one of the captives; he, together with a number of "privates" lately acknowledging his authority, was without delay placed at the criminals' bar, there all undergoing alike the trial for their lives; no distinction for officers was at this time made, either in the flattering way of extra trial or extra punishment. Owing to the intercession of several highly respectable citizens of the United States with the British government in behalf of some of these individuals, they were kindly allowed to retain their forfeited heads, and were only sentenced to transportation for life to Botany Bay.

This bootless business now approaches rapidly its conclusion. Papineau, Viger, O'Callaghan, and others, in the Lower Province, where the insurrection was of a more respectable character, had been taken and banished to France, or heavily fined and imprisoned—so that all was in that region settled and quiet. In the Upper Province, however, one more outbreak—a final and bloody flare-up—was yet to take place. Messrs. Theller and Dodge had escaped, almost miraculously, from the impregnable

British castle at Quebec, in which they were imprisoned. They arrived, in the month of October, at Boston; but passing hastily thence they set their faces towards New-York, as a less "calculating" and more excitable and proper neighbourhood for the commencement of their operations. They were at the latter place joined by the notable Mr. M'Kenzie, then lately liberated from an incarceration at Rochester for his political misdemeanours, and they together procuring the old Richmond Hill Theatre building, commenced illumining the populace who could be drawn in association there for a few nights, as to the remarkable and peculiar and unwarrantable state of things in Canada. Somehow, even in the "great metropolis" of America, they failed to excite a popular feeling—and so passed farther north. In Albany, and in Troy the subject attracted more attention; also in Utica, Syracuse, and Salina. In the beginning of November, therefore, the patriots again rallied, for a grand and finishing stroke—a farewell demonstration.

It seems they had already been secretly formed into clubs, called Hunters' Lodges, along the American line; and they now in concert resolved upon Prescott, Upper Canada, not far from Ogdensburgh, as a proper place of union for their forces. On the 10th of the month, two schooners were freighted with arms and men at Oswego, and dispatched for Sacketts' Harbour; at the latter place two hundred and fifty patriots went on board the lake steamer United States, bound thence for Ogdensburgh; and, on getting into the river St. Lawrence, Captain Van Cleve was induced, by a false representation of some of the chief "patriots," to take in tow the aforesaid schooners, which were there lying at anchor. No sooner had they been lashed alongside, than it became apparent they were filled with men and munitions of war, instead of merchandize as stated, and the captain refused to convoy them to Ogdensburgh. Their fastenings were cut loose, and the steamer put out her fires and lay by for the night. After much shuffling and irregular proceeding on the part of the warlike schooners, one of them being stranded and fought for by adverse parties, some two hundred men were landed near Prescott, and proceeded at once to occupy a strong position known as Windmill Point, about a mile further down the river. On the arrival of Captain Van Cleve's steamboat at Ogdensburgh the next morning, she was taken possession of, first by the insurgents for their own purposes, and subsequently by the marshal and military officers of the American government for an infringement upon the rights of the British and the neutral policy of the United States.

The notorious Bill Johnson, now become "the hero of the lakes," was, with his boats, had in immediate requisition; he crossed the river back and forth a number of times, with volunteers for the new service, and was addressing a crowd of idlers on the American shore with considerable success, when Colonel Worth, with a body of troops, put a stop to further proceedings of that sort. Early on the morning of the 13th, two British steamers arrived at Prescott with a reinforcement of men for Fort Wellington, as well as a supply of cannon and bombs, with which they commenced an attack upon the patriot camp. It is said the assailants were on this occasion repulsed, with the loss of a hundred men. On the 14th, they sent a flag of truce to the patriots, for permission to bury their dead, which was granted; subsequently, it is also said, a like request was refused the patriots by the British, and the bearer of the "rebel" flag shot down.

On the 15th, an additional force of loyalists arriving at the scene of action, they were able completely to surround the men at the Windmill; when, after a hard day's battle, the ammunition of the patriots failing, they were compelled to surrender. On this day, according to the account of Dr. Theller (who was there, again embarked in search of glory, though one would suppose his ardour must have been a trifle chilled by the ex-

tremely near and uncomfortable prospect of a halter swinging for his neck), thirty-six patriots were killed, two escaped, and ninety were made prisoners. Of the British, one hundred and fifty men and twenty officers fell, including Captain Drummond. The patriots were commanded by one Van Schoultz, a brave but unfortunate Polander, who had fought for the freedom of his native land, and witnessed her expiring agonies at ill-fated Warsaw. When driven to desperation, he opposed the offering to the enemy the flag of truce, and besought his men to rush forth with him and die in the contest; but five days' fatigue had broken their courage, and made them indifferent to their fate. They yielded, and their brave leader was hung; thus perishing at the early age of thirty-one years. Twenty-three of the more prominent offenders were sent to England, and from there, after trial, were transported to Van Dieman's land. The remainder of the captives, after a trial and imprisonment in Canada, were released.

Thus was this wild "rebellion" finally crushed. On all points it had failed, signally failed; though perhaps, in the first instance, its failure was owing altogether to a want of that energy and ability which might, under the circumstances, have been reasonably expected from its original movers. The result of all the bloodshed and turmoil, however, almost as a matter of course, has *since* been an effective and healthful re-organization of the Canadian government. Most of the abuses which were with reason complained of by the French have been abated, and the British authority in both provinces much strengthened; or, perhaps, as we are rather warranted in saying, firmly established.

The queen's government has, within a short time past, exercised extreme liberality towards the American prisoners condemned to New-Holland for participation in this most unwise attempt to revolutionize the Canadas. The great majority, if not all, of the convicts, have been pardoned and returned to their homes. The French gentlemen of the lower provice who were apprehended for being so deeply concerned in the matter, have also been recalled from banishment, and had their confiscated estates and rank in society restored to them. M. Papineau, upon his recall from the island of Barbadoes, was paid a considerable amount of money, in liquidation of a claim of his of some years' standing, against the government of Lower Canada, as speaker of the Assembly.

In this year were at length disposed of, the cases of the brothers R. and H. White, indicted in 1833 for setting on fire the United States' treasury buildings. The first-mentioned person was acquitted—the other sentenced to hard labour for a term of ten years in the District penitentiary.

About the same time was brought before the Supreme Court of the United States, a suit commenced by the heirs of the late Stephen Girard, of Philadelphia, *versus* his trustees and executors. The complainants asserted, and with something of plausibility, a misapplication and waste of the funds of the illustrious testator; but, after a very patient hearing of lengthy arguments pro and con, their honours concluded upon the exercise of no particular interference.

The judges of the Supreme Court in the time of Mr. Van Buren, were as follows: *Chief Justice*, Roger B. Taney, of Maryland; *Associate Justices*, Joseph Story, of Massachusetts; Smith Thompson, of New-York; John M'Lean, of Ohio; Henry Baldwin, of Pennsylvania; James M. Wayne, of Georgia; Philip P. Barbour, of Virginia; John Catron of Tennessee; John M'Kinley, of Alabama.

Fain would we now pass in silence to another page; but justice demands the record of an event which was allowed to take place near the seat of government of this "enlightened" land, which would scarcely have been tolerated in a society of New-Zealanders. We allude to the death of Jonathan Cilley: and verily the dog-star must have raged, from the

opening scene of the tragic act, to the hour when its principal perpetrators were decided still fit to hold seats in the national council. It occurred as follows: The unfortunate Cilley (a newly elected member from Maine), soon after assuming his seat, took occasion in a speech of some length and spirit, to reflect with great severity upon the character of many of his associates who were politically opposed to him. James Watson Webb, of New-York, feeling particularly aggrieved, took upon himself the task of calling the offender to account. The Hon. Mr. W. J. Graves, of Kentucky, consented to act as bearer of Mr. Webb's letter; but even this was not sufficient to induce Mr. Cilley to accept of the note from Mr. Webb. Indignant thereat, Mr. Graves assumed to be very much offended himself, and demanded of Mr. Cilley whether *he*, Mr. Graves, was not a gentleman? The member from Maine instantly replied that he had always considered him such, and should still so consider him—but that it did not necessarily follow he should have any dispute with Mr. Webb. Mr. Graves said he thought differently—and peremptorily required Mr. Cilley to accept a challenge from either Mr. Webb or himself—or, to retract what he had said in debate. Mr. Cilley very naturally refused, at first, to do anything of the kind; but he was at length weak enough to accept of a challenge from Graves. The duel was fought with rifles, at eighty paces, the *minutiæ* being arranged by Hon. Henry A. Wise, and George W. Jones. Two shots were exchanged without effect, when Mr. Wise (second to Mr. Graves), announced that he should propose to "shorten the distance" if no one was killed or maimed by the next exchange. He also "announced" to the parties, that a select few, for whose honour he could vouch, stood at a distance taking a bird's-eye view of the *sport*—but that, as this was contrary to the rules of etiquette acknowledged among duellists, if the principals in this gentlemanly affair desired it, he would go and drive the intruders off. No obection being made, the third shots were exchanged—and Mr. Cilley fell dead. But, though these events, so disgraceful to all concerned, were allowed to go unpunished at the seat of government, it was far otherwise throughout the country. A storm of indignation was poured upon the heads of the offenders from the great mass of the community.

Death swept away this year—by explosion on board the steam packet Pulaski, of Charleston, one hundred and sixty persons; by explosion on board the Mississippi steamer Moselle, near the wharf at Cincinnatti, one hundred and twenty; by fire, on board the lake steamer Washington, near Buffalo, fifty more. In April, at Baltimore, Hon. Isaac M'Kim, of Maryland; at the same place, Captain J. L. Nicholson, U. S. N.; same place, Hon. T. J. Carter, of Maine. In New-York, æ 90, Lorenzo Daponte, the "friend of Mozart." In Boston, Nathaniel Bowditch, L. L. D. At Plattsburgh, New-York, æ 80, Major-general Mooers. In New-Hampshire, Judge Wingate, æ 99. In Alabama, Hon. J. Lawler. In Kentucky, Captain Gatliff, a pioneer—the "companion of Boone." In Texas, by suicide, Colonel Grayson. At Sing-Sing, New-York, Commodore Creighton, U. S. N. At Hudson, New-York, Captain Coffin, æ 99, of Nantucket. At Huntsville, Alabama, Colonel Lindsay, U. S. A. At St. Louis, Missouri, General William H. Ashley; same place, by murder, Judge Dougherty. At Philadelphia, Commodore Rodgers, senior officer U. S. N. In New-York, Commodore Woolsey; of whom it is said, in the late war he induced a British party by stratagem to go up an American creek, foraging—and then suddenly rushed upon them with a small body of riflemen, crying fiercely "Charge! charge!"—whereupon the Britons threw down their arms and yielded at discretion, Woolsey marching up to their chief (whom he had seen before) with "Why, Major Popham, what on earth brought you here?" and he replying, "Well, Woolsey, this is the first time I ever heard of a rifle corps charging!" In New-Orleans, Alex-

ander Milne, æ 60, leaving $200,000 to benevolent institutions. In Charleston, South-Carolina, M. Kohne, leaving $730,000 in charitable bequests. In the Arkansas house of representatives, Major Anthony, a member, being killed by Colonel Wilson, the speaker—for an implied insult. On passage from Havana to Philadelphia, M. Maelzel, inventor of the automaton chess-player. In Peru, J. B. Thornton, American chargé d'affaires. On the island of Cuba, Dr. Antomarchi, the favourite and last physician of Napoleon. In Paris, 17th May, at the age of 84, M. Talleyrand, the consummate diplomatist, but recusant bishop, married priest, and renegade catholic; the pope, however, by intercession of King Philippe, consented to receive him back into the arms of the church, and allowed the administration of extreme unction. In London, John Reeve, an actor; Lieutent-colonel Balfour, 82d regiment; Philip Molyneaux, Lord Sefton; Sir Gerard Noel Noel, M. P. At Madeira, Arthur Baring, son of Lord Ashburton. At Cape Coast, Africa, Mrs. George M'Lean, better known as "L. E. L.," the poetess. In Paris, Marshal Count Lobau, æ 68, an officer of Napoleon, taken by the British at Waterloo. In Rome, "the sacred city," at the age of 68, his holiness, Annibal della Genga, Pope Leo XII.; he was elevated to the papal chair in 1823, on the death of Pius VII., and now made way for Castiglione, Pius VIII.

A. D. 1839.—Close upon the heels of the Canadian rebellion, came the vexed North-Eastern Boundary question. In this was involved not merely the ownership of seven millions of acres of land, or a tract about twice the size of the state of Connecticut—but what was deemed of much more moment by Great Britain, the right of a direct way across from the province of New-Brunswick, either by or south of the St. Johns river, to Quebec on the St. Lawrence.

As early as the beginning of 1837, the legislature of the state of Maine passed, unanimously, the following among other resolutions bearing strongly upon the subject:—

"*Resolved*, That the governor be authorized and requested to call on the President of the United States to cause the North-Eastern Boundary of this state to be explored and surveyed, and monuments erected, according to the treaty of 1783.

"*Resolved*, That our Senators in Congress be *instructed*, and our representatives *requested*, to endeavour to obtain a speedy adjustment of the controversy."

As a preparatory step towards forcing a settlement of the matter, the state of Maine authorized an agent, Mr. E. S. Greeley, to take the census of the Madawaska district as a part of the state of Maine; the town of Madawaska being included in the disputed territory, the British authorities had him arrested, and sent to Woodstock, New-Brunswick, for trial, on a charge of interference with the affairs of a foreign dominion. He was there examined by justices, and ordered into custody of the sheriff; that officer refusing to hold him, however, he was set at liberty. Upon manifesting a very decided disposition to repeat the offence for which he had been taken, Mr. Greeley was again apprehended, and sent to Frederickton for confinement until his case could be submitted to Sir John Harvey. That officer, upon consideration, caused Mr. Greeley to be offered his discharge from durance, provided he would agree to go and offend no more. Being filled with patriotism, the citizen of Maine refused to do so, and was therefore remanded to prison, from whence he did not make his egress for nearly three months—being committed 23d May, and released 12th August—and then only on the intercession of Mr. Stevenson, American minister at the court of St. James.

In the interim, Mr. Evans, United States' senator from Maine, having moved the attention of Congress to the subject, $20,000 were appropriated, to defray the expenses of a commission to make a survey and run the

boundary line—from the mount at the head of the Schoodic to the north-west angle of Nova-Scotia—the British commissioners having refused to go due north, according to the treaty, any farther than Mars' Hill.

While the case stood thus, about the beginning of October, Governor Kent addressed a letter to Sir John Harvey, of New-Brunswick, with the information that he had just appointed a body of twelve men as commissioners of Maine to explore the disputed territory, for geological and other purposes, in accordance with a resolution of the state legislature requiring the same to be done. Governor Harvey replied, in effect, that he could see no great utility in the measure, particularly at that time, pending the action of Congress; nevertheless, he should offer no impediment to their proceedings, so long as they confined their observations strictly to the debatable territory.

The next flourish of trumpets originated with Governor Fairfield, the newly-elected successor of Edward Kent, in the gubernatorial chair of Maine. Rightly judging that he could not better oblige his constituents than by chiming in with their views relative to the New-Brunswick controversy, he addressed, on the 23d of January, 1839, a confidential message to the legislature of his state, recommending the passage of a resolution empowering the Maine land-agent to proceed to the Aroostook river, with a sufficient force to disperse certain trespassers, who, it was said, were from the adjoining British province, and at that time extensively engaged in cutting timber on the lands claimed by the state of Maine. Accordingly, on the day following the reception of this message, the annexed resolution passed both houses:

"*Resolved*, That the land-agent be and is hereby authorized and required to employ forthwith sufficient force to arrest, detain, and imprison all persons found trespassing on the territory of this State, as bounded and established by the treaty of 1783, and that the land-agent be and is hereby empowered to dispose of all the teams, lumber and other materials in the hands and possession of said trespassers, in such way and manner as he may deem necessary and expedient at the time, by destroying the same or otherwise. And that the sum of ten thousand dollars be and hereby is appropriated for the purpose of carrying this resolve into effect, and that the governor, with the advice of the council, be and is hereby authorized to draw his warrant from time to time, for such sums as may be required for the purposes aforesaid.

"APPROVED:

"*January* 24, 1839. JOHN FAIRFIELD."

Thus authorized to act, the Hon. Mr. McIntire, land-agent, accompanied by the sheriff of Penobscot county, and a force of one hundred and fifty men, which was deemed sufficient for any probable emergency, made their preparations and departed. On the 12th of February these men encamped at the mouth of the Little Madawaska, Mr. McIntire and the other leaders of the party passing along a short distance further, and putting up for the night at a house about three miles within the acknowledged American border. Here, about midnight, they were seized by a considerable body of armed men, and conveyed across the line; and the next day sent, strongly guarded, to Frederickton, New-Brunswick, and there imprisoned. The next steps taken, were by a portion of the people of Maine, unauthorized, who in retaliation for the abducting of their land-agent, seized upon the British warden of the disputed territory, Mr. McLaughlin; and also broke into her majesty's arsenal at Woodstock, and abstracted therefrom a quantity of arms, military stores, &c.

This matter was duly set forth in a proclamation, on the 13th of February, by "Sir John Harvey, K. C. B. and K. C. H.," who by the same

document ordered out the 1st and 2d battalions of the militia of the county of Carleton, for the purposes of repelling foreign invasion and preventing the illegal assumption of arms by her majesty's subjects. On the 15th, Governor Fairfield sent his message to the legislature, complaining of the capture of his land-agent as a "most extraordinary and outrageons proceeding," which demanded instant attention. He also announced that he had despatched a special messenger to New-Brunswick, for the purpose of ascertaining whether the provincial government countenanced in any way this "kidnapping" of American citizens.

The reply of the governor of New-Brunswick to the executive of Maine, upon his requisition for the release of Mr. McIntire, was courteous but firm. He stated to Governor Fairfield, that the attorney-general of the province, upon an examination of the affair, was of opinion that the offence committed, or contemplated, was rather against the law of nations than against the laws of New-Brunswick; and therefore it was a matter to be decided upon by the government of Great Britain, to which the case would be referred. In the meantime, however, Mr. McIntire was allowed his liberty on parole that he would appear to answer, in New-Brunswick, whenever called upon to do so.

Upon the receipt of this letter, Governor Fairfield ordered immediately the release of Mr. McLaughlin, the warden of the province, also upon parole to surrender himself to the authorities of Maine, whenever required so to do. Then followed a protest from the solicitor-general of New-Brunswick, by order, expressing great surprise at the action of a legislature authorizing the occupation, by an armed force, of a territory which it was well understood was by treaty to remain a neutral ground until the general governments should definitely arrange the difficulties. It was also stated that Sir John Harvey had been expressly ordered by his sovereign to hold the disputed territory inviolate, *and he should do so.*

That is to say, by sending a formidable body of his regulars to the scene of contention, Governor Harvey meant to force all others off the premises. Upon this, the governor of Maine immediately addressed an epistle to his excellency, the governor of Massachusetts, whose state had also an interest in the lands in debate, requesting the views of the executive on the controversy, and demanding the countenance and co-operation of that ancient and honourable commonwealth. Governor Everett replied by addressing a communication to his own state legislature, enclosing the documents of Governor Fairfield; the result of which was, the speedy passage by that body, of a series of resolutions denunciatory of the course of the province of New-Brunswick, and declaratory of their fixed determination to support the state of Maine in any exigency which might arise.

Thus sustained, the people of the extreme east set about their belligerent preparations with great spirit, drafting militia, organizing volunteers, and purchasing munitions. In the heat of these proceedings, however, news reached them of the arrival hard by, of a very extensive consignment of troops for Governor Harvey, which had been early despatched him from Halifax, Cork, and elsewhere. In view of this activity on the part of the English administration, Congress deemed it high time to begin also and do a little something. The following act, therefore, was the next step towards a concentration of the difficulty:

AN ACT giving to the president of the United States additional powers for the defence of the United States, in certain cases, against invasion and for other purposes.

Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the president of the United States be, and he hereby is, authorized to resist any attempt on

the part of Great Britain to enforce, by arms, her claims to exclusive jurisdiction over that part of the state of Maine which is in dispute between the United States and Great Britain; and for that purpose, to employ the naval and military forces of the United States, and such portions of the militia as he may deem it advisable to call into service.

SEC. 2.—*And be it further enacted*, That the militia when called into the service of the United States by virtue of this act, or of the act entitled "An act to provide for the calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, repel invasions, and to repeal the act now in force for those purposes," may, if in the opinion of the president of the United States the public interest requires it, be compelled to serve for a term not exceeding six months after the arrival at their place of rendezvous, in any one year, unless sooner discharged.

SEC. 3.—*And be it further enacted*, That, in the event of actual invasion of the territory of the United States by any foreign power, or of imminent danger of such invasion discovered, in his opinion, to exist, before Congress can be convened to act upon the subject, the president be, and he hereby is, authorized, if he deem the same expedient, to accept the services of any number of volunteers not exceeding fifty thousand, in the manner provided for in the act entitled "An act authorizing the president of the United States to accept the services of volunteers, and to raise an additional regiment of dragoons or mounted riflemen," approved May 23, 1836.

SEC. 4.—*And be it further enacted*, That, in the event of either of the contingencies provided for in this act, the president of the United States shall be authorized to complete the public armed vessels now authorized by law, and to equip, man, and employ, in actual service, all the naval force of the United States; and to build, purchase, charter, or arm, equip, and man such vessels and steamboats on the northern lakes and rivers whose waters communicate with the United States and Great Britain, as he shall deem necessary to protect the United States from invasion from that quarter.

SEC. 5.—*And be it farther enacted*, That the sum of ten millions of dollars is hereby appropriated and placed at his disposal for the purpose of executing the provisions of this act; to provide for which the secretary of the treasury is authorized to borrow money on the credit of the United States, and to cause to be issued certificates of stock, signed by the register of the treasury, for the sum to be borrowed, or any part thereof; and the same to be sold upon the best terms that may be offered after public notice for proposals for the same: *Provided*, That no engagement or contract shall be entered into which shall preclude the United States from reimbursing any sum or sums thus borrowed after the expiration of five years from the 1st of January next; and that the rate of interest shall not exceed five per cent., payable semi-annually.

SEC. 6.—*And be it further enacted*, That the sum of eighteen thousand dollars be, and the same is hereby, appropriated, out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, for outfit and salary of a special minister to Great Britain: *Provided*, The president of the United States shall deem it expedient to appoint the same.

SEC. 7.—*And be it further enacted*, That in the event of either of the contingencies provided for in the first and third sections of this act, the president of the United States shall be authorized to apply a part not exceeding one million of the appropriation made in this act, to repairing or arming fortifications along the sea-board and frontier.

SEC. 8.—*And be it further enacted*, That whenever militia or volunteers are called into the service of the United States, they shall have the organization of the army of the United States, and shall receive the same pay and allowances.

SEC. 9.—*And be it further enacted*, That the several provisions of this act shall be in force until the end of sixty days after the meeting of the first session of the next Congress, and no longer.

(Signed) JAMES K. POLK,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
WILLIAM R. KING,
President pro tem. of the Senate.

(Approved) M. VAN BUREN.
March 3, 1839.

Upon the receival of news of this action of Congress, at Halifax, her majesty's government officers proceeded at once to sound the notes of warlike preparation, deeming a collision between the two countries inevitable. The legislature of Nova Scotia assembled on the 26th, and at once voted a sum of £100,000, to be at the disposal of the governor, to raise men to go to the aid of New-Brunswick, and eight thousand men were ordered to be immediately raised.

Intermediately, however, an arrangement was effected between Mr. Forsyth, the American Secretary of State, and Mr. H. S. Fox, her majesty's minister at Washington, for the temporary suspension of proceedings on both sides, until a communication could be had from the parent government of th Canadas. In relation to this arrangement, the following very sensible note was addressed by Governor Harvey to Governor Fairfield:

"GOVERNMENT HOUSE,
"FREDERICTON, (N. B.) March 7, 1839.

"Major-General Sir John Harvey presents his compliments to Governor Fairfield, and, with reference to a communication which he has just received from her majesty's minister at Washington, transmitting a "memorandum" under the joint signatures of Mr. Forsyth, Secretary of State, and Mr. Fox, containing terms of accommodation, recommended by the secretary of state and her majesty's minister plenipotentiary, to Governor Fairfield and himself respectively, begs to say, that he will be happy to enter into such amicable communication with Governor Fairfield upon the subject as may conduce to the attainment of the very desirable and important object thereby proposed to be effected.

"Sir John Harvey has answered Mr. Fox's communication, by expressing his entire readiness to give effect to the proposed desirable arrangement so far as may be dependent upon him.

"To His Excellency, GOVERNOR FAIRFIELD," &c.

This, however, was not at all satisfactory to the governor of the state of Maine. His troops were already assembled, and hastening to the disputed territory, "all fierce for war;" and he could now have no idea of quenching their ardour by putting a stop to all the stirring clamours, simply for the purpose of quietly settling down into an amicable and cool negotiation, which could, in his apprehension of the case, only result in their falling back into the same old and objectionable paths of procedure which had been so long and so fruitlessly complained of.

The president of the United States upon this ordered General Scott, peremptorily, to take command of the military operations to be conducted in the neighbourhood of the excited border; and he was charged, by all means *to preserve peace*. This judicious instruction was propably the means of preventing bloodshed and destruction from running riot to an untold extent, as well as two great nations from being embroiled in a fearful war, by the mad collision of those heated borderers.

The executive of the state of New-York at this time, William H. Seward, thought the north-eastern boundary question a sufficiently national one to demand from him an opinion respecting the propriety of an action with reference thereto by the state legislature. His remarks were as follows; and, we may as well add, his views seemed to be fully concurred in, not by the legislature merely, but by the people generally.

"While the several state governments should carefully abstain from any act, that might in any degree interfere with the constitutional duties of the federal government, it is obvious that occasions may arise in which they ought to make known to that government, to foreign nations, and to any aggrieved sister state, that we are an united people, jealous of our sovereignty, and determined to resist aggression upon the rights or territory of the Union. The passage of the act of Congress above referred to, provisionally contemplates that the country may, during the recess of that body, be compelled to assume an attitude of defence against a foreign power, and seems therefore to present one of those occasions which call for such an expression on the part of the several States.

"The measures adopted by Congress seem to me to have been wisely designed to preserve the existing inestimable relations of peace between this country and Great Britain, as well as to vindicate the rights of the state of Maine, and to maintain the honour and dignity of the nation. It can scarcely be believed that enlightened Christian nations, bound to each other in peculiar relations of feeling and of interest, will unnecessarily suffer the harmony existing between them to be interrupted. The governments of both, as well as their individual citizens, are under the strongest obligations to cultivate every disposition to amity, and to repress all tendencies to hostile action. At the same time, peace is seldom the lot of any nation which does not on all proper occasions, manifest that it knows its rights, and will at all hazards maintain them. I respectfully call your attention to the subject, under the expectation that an expression on our part of concurrence in the policy of the general government, will contribute to avert the calamity of war, and secure the speedy and honourable adjustment of the existing difficulties between this country and Great Britain."

At the close of the year, Mr. Van Buren, in his annual message to Congress, held the following language with relation to the progress of negotiations for the settlement of the dispute:

"For the settlement of our north-eastern boundary, the proposition provided by Great Britain for a commission of exploration and survey, has been received—and a counter project, including also a provision for the certain and final adjustment of the limits in dispute, is now before the British government for its consideration. A just regard to the delicate state of this question, and a proper respect for the natural impatience of the state of Maine, not less than a conviction that the negotiation has been already protracted longer than is prudent on the part of either government, have led me to believe that the present favourable moment should on no account be suffered to pass without putting the question forever at rest. I feel confident that the government of her Britannic majesty will take the same view of this subject, as I am persuaded it is governed by desires equally strong and sincere for the amicable termination of the controversy.

"To the intrinsic difficulties of questions of boundary lines, especially those described in regions unoccupied, and but partially known, is to be added in our country the embarrassment necessarily arising out of our constitution, by which the general government is made the organ of negotiating, and deciding upon the particular interests of the states on whose frontiers these lines are to be traced. To avoid another controversy in

which a state government might rightfully claim to have her wishes consulted, previously to the conclusion of conventional arrangements concerning her rights of jurisdiction or territory, I have thought it necessary to call the attention of the government of Great Britain to another portion of our conterminous dominion, of which the division still remains to be adjusted. I refer to the line from the entrance of Lake Superior to the most northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods, stipulations for the settlement of which are to be found in the 7th article of the treaty of Ghent. The commissioners appointed under that article by the two governments having differed in their opinions, made separate reports, according to its stipulations, upon the points of disagreement, and these differences are now to be submitted to the arbitration of some friendly sovereign or state. The disputed point should be settled, and the line designated, before the territorial government, of which it is one of the boundaries, takes its place in the Union as a State; and I rely upon the cordial co-operation of the British government to effect that object."

The proposition of the American government to Great Britain appeared to be, a mutual appointment of commissioners with power to negotiate a final adjustment of the matter, either in London or at the city of Washington. The project met with no favour in the eyes of the British at that time, however, and was necessarily abandoned. Her majesty's government, it seems, placed the greatest reliance upon a scheme of their own, the character of which was presently made manifest in the appointment of two principal surveyors and a posse, to make a sort of geological examination of the country adjacent to their boundary in the north-east; and these surveyors were expected, should the thing prove humanly possible, to ascertain where the line really was "or of right ought to be," and then issue a declaration which would fully persuade the Americans of the same. These men were Col. Mudge and Mr. Featherstonhaugh, the first a valuable and gentlemanly officer of Great Britain, the latter a renegade official of the United States. They arrived about the middle of August upon the scene of difficulty, and with commendable alacrity commenced their labours. After three months spent in sage observations along the rugged ridges of the northern wilderness, winter setting in, they left their task unfinished and returned to England. Enough, however, had been ascertained by these scientific gentlemen, to enable them to make a report in some fifty-odd pages folio to her majesty's government, in which they settled beyond all possibility of doubt, as they fondly imagined, the indubitable right of Great Britain to all the territory in question, and, if anything, more too. This sapient conclusion of these engineers was communicated as speedily as might be, in a very dignified and decisive manner, by Lord Palmerston on behalf of the English ministry, to the American government.

The next succeeding United States Congress thereupon concluded, with unsurpassable discrimination and the greatest unanimity of feeling, (in order not to be too glaringly outdone), to have a survey and report made for themselves. A law was accordingly enacted for the purpose, and Captain Talcott and Professor Renwick, with Major Graham and lieutenants Lee and Thom, of the United States' corps of engineers, were ordered directly to proceed about making another survey, with an impartiality which might be worthy of emulation of course, but which would at the same time, in some sort answer for an offset to the excellent and worthy-to-be-imitated report of the Messrs. Mudge and Featherstonhaugh.

In the month of November, 1841, the United States' commissioners completed their counter-survey, and arrived at the inevitable conclusion that it was quite impossible a reasoning individual could see any other line than that of the United States, as originally recognized and laid down by

the treaty of 1783. The American engineers upon this were treated to a public dinner, and their report received and toasted with evident satisfaction. There the subject seemed again likely to rest; at least with the American government. Great Britain, on the contrary, in accordance with a belief in the correctness of her claim, authorized the building of forts at the mouth of the St. Johns, on both sides of the river, and the establishment of a military post near Lake Temiskouta, within the disputed lines. This roused the ire of Maine again; and as it was understood a new governor was about to succeed Sir John Harvey in New-Brunswick, who was known to possess a more arbitrary and domineering spirit, preparations were actively renewed for war.

Now, however, the fates interposed to preserve peace. Some said the Britons were surprised at the stubborness of the North-eastern men, and hoped by the appointment of a special minister, to show to the other states how unreasonable they might prove in a negotiation. Perhaps a more just view of the case would point to the ascension of that eminent statesman and profound man, Sir Robert Peel, to the primacy of Great Britain. His able and conciliatory course with reference to other important questions, would indicate that he had, with accustomed discrimination, selected in preference to any from the host of aspiring diplomatists around him, the worthy noble who accomplished so satisfactorily this difficult task. Lord Ashburton was well known as a principal in the great mercantile house of Baring, Brothers & Co., which was interested largely in American stocks and securities, and therefore inclined to favour, as far as possible, the continuance of peaceful relations across the water. The baron was also known to be individually an extensive owner of real estate in Pennsylvania, as well as the husband of a daughter of the former United States senator Bingham, from that state, by which means he had of course become still closer attached to the country. The war-party in Great Britain were very much opposed to the choice of such a man to negotiate upon this point; nevertheless, he was appointed, in the beginning of 1842, a special envoy to the city of Washington, with full powers to finally settle, for good or for evil, the vexatious dispute.

Daniel Webster, at that time Secretary of State, was temporarily detached from the duties of his office, and his sole attention directed to a speedy and proper consideration and conclusion of the great object of the new minister's mission. To assist in the negotiation, were appointed, by the state of Massachusetts, Messrs. Lawrence, Mills, and Allen; by the state of Maine, Ex-Governor Kent, and Messrs. Otis, Kavanagh, and Preble. Those selected for the same duty on the part of Great Britain, were Mr. McLaughlin, warden of the English territory, Mr. Simmons, speaker of the House of Commons, and Mr. George Reed, secretary to the governor of Nova Scotia. These were all summoned to appear as soon as might be, in the city of Washington, to aid in this conference, and they did so. The negotiation was commenced by the presentation of propositions from the commissioners of Massachusetts and Maine, which were declined. Lord Ashburton then made his propositions, which were in turn rejected. Mr. Webster then proposed his terms, as of the United States, and the negotiation assumed more the character of a compromise of difficulties, which finally resulted in agreeing upon a conventional line, and making stipulations by which each party conceded something for the cause of amity—though nothing, it is believed, of honour or character.

The line agreed upon corresponds, in many particulars, with that proposed by the king of the Netherlands when he acted as arbiter upon the subject; but as an equivalent for concessions of territories made by Maine and Massachusetts in now acceeding to that line, the United States were guaranteed to receive a variety of valuable considerations not contemplated by the award alluded to. The line was ordered to be run as fol-

lows: from the monument on the Schoodic to the St. Johns as at present, then along the middle of the St, Johns to the mouth of the St. Francis, and up the middle of that river to Lake Pohengamook; thence southwesterly straight to the northwesternmost head of the Connecticut river. The portion of the Madawaska settlement south of the St. Johns to belong to Maine. This point was warmly contested by the British, but was finally conceded.

The pretensions of Great Britain agreeably to the famous survey of Featherstonhaugh and his associates, came far south of the St. Johns, and included the Aroostook; all this was of course by the treaty relinquished. For the sterile tract north of the St. Johns which Maine had heretofore claimed but now relinquishes, the United States were to have the free navigation of the entire river St. Johns—an important acquisition to Maine particularly—and other privileges in regard to entering northern British ports.

Great Britain besides relinquished to the United States Rouse's point, the key to Lake Champlain, which, after partly fortifying, in 1816, the American government was obliged to give up to the English, on its being ascertained to be within their limits. An island of some importance in Lake Superior was also ceded to the United States; and a considerable strip of territory heretofore supposed to belong to New-York, New-Hampshire, and Vermont, but which was proven to lie north of the 45th degree of latitude, and therefore belonging to Canada. The line from the St. Lawrence through the great lakes as high as the Lake of the Woods, was also adjusted.

In consideration of these provisions, the United States agreed to pay to the states of Maine and Massachusetts $150,000 each, for the territory they relinquished. The expenses of the Aroostook war, as it was termed, were also assumed by the United States, as indeed they would have been in case no treaty had been accomplished. The two treaties were on the 11th of August submitted to the United States' Senate, which immediately went into secret session. After a debate of four or five days, the question on "consenting to and advising" the ratification of the projected arrangement, was taken, and agreed to, the vote standing ayes 39, nays 9; the dissenters being certain ardent gentlemen who were blessed with something more of patriotism than wisdom. An agent of the diplomatic bureau at Washington proceeded immediately to England with the ratified treaty. Mr. Webster left the seat of government for home, on a respite from duties, stopping in New-York, however, to partake of a public dinner tendered him by the city. Lord Ashburton also bade farewell to his many new-made friends, for New-York, to embark on board the Warspite sloop-of-war, which was awaiting him in the harbour of that city.

Article 10, of the Webster and Ashburton treaty, stipulates that each party, upon requisition from the other, shall deliver up to justice persons charged with the crime of murder, assault with intent to murder, piracy, arson, robbery, or forgery, upon sufficient proof of their criminality.

In the month of August, the United States' surveying brig Washington, Captain Gedney, while sounding between Montauk and Gardner's points, discovered a trim-built schooner laying at anchor, under somewhat questionable circumstances. On sending a boat alongside, she was ascertained to be the Amistad, Captain Ramonflues, bound last from Havana to Port Principe, Cuba, with a cargo consisting in part of valuable merchandize, fifty-four slaves, and two passengers, viz., Don Jose Ruiz and Pedro Montez, who were also owners of the slaves and cargo.

After being four nights out, the blacks rose and murdered the captain and three of the crew, wounded the Spaniards, and took possession of the vessel. Their design was to gain the African coast; steering by the sun themselves during the day, they compelled their prisoners to navigate the

vessel by night. For this purpose only were the lives of the Spaniards spared. They, however, had constantly reversed their course, so as to gain in the night what was lost by day; and thus they had kept the vessel beating about in the Bahama channel, with the hope to meet some friendly merchantman or ship of war.

Four days after the rising of the negroes, they were providentially discovered, as related; being at the time engaged in taking in a supply of water and fresh provisions—possibly beginning to suspect the trick that was played upon them. The leader in the revolt, who was called Cinquez, when he saw that they were likely to be taken, sprang overboard, and managed to loose from his person, as is said, a large amount of gold in doubloons; after which, he quietly submitted to be taken.

The Amistad was then towed into New-London by the Washington, and there left in charge of the proper officers. The blacks were transferred to Hartford, and placed in prison to await their trial on the charges of murder and piracy. Counsel for the prisoners presently had a hearing before the United States' Circuit Court, Judge Thompson presiding, on a motion to release from custody on a writ of habeas corpus—which was denied. After some delay, another trial was held before Judge Judson, of the District Court, at New-Haven—where it was decided that the slaves should be returned to Africa, and set at liberty.

The judge ruled that if these blacks had been lawful slaves, they would undoubtedly have been punishable with death; but as they were proven to be true Bozal negroes, scarcely six weeks from the coast of Africa when their crime was committed, and had been kidnapped in direct violation of the laws, not merely of Spain, but of the whole civilized world, they were held justifiable in attempting to regain their liberty, by whatever means. The president of the United States was called upon, therefore, in conformity with the act of March 3, 1819, still in force, to have them returned to their country.

A requisition was made upon the American government by Spain, for the transfer of these negroes to Cuba, instead of elsewhere, that they might undergo a trial by Spanish laws; while about the same time a protest was received from England, couched in strong terms, calling in question the right of the United States, or any other power, to try the blacks at all. Congress then took the matter in hand; members became excited, speeches were made, and new laws proposed; but eventually nothing of greater moment grew out of it.

Mercury, the god of thieves, about these days appears to have held particular sway. Defalcation, repudiation, etc., began to make their appearance. At the close of the last year was discovered, in New-York, the enormous public frauds of Samuel Swartwout, while in office as collector of the customs. His mania for speculation having led him on somewhat ahead of his fellows in trust, it became at length necessary that he should resort to self-expatriation, or submit to a more immediate punishment. Upon his flight, an examination into the affairs of his office was of course ordered, and the glaring results of so long-continued a peculation as was then made known, was an astonishment even in Wall-street.

From a message of the president to Congress, enclosing a special report from the secretary of the treasury, communicating the astounding lengths to which this new candidate for public reprobation, had been permitted to go, are gleaned the following facts:

Mr. Swartwout was originally appointed collector for the port of New-York on the 25th of April, 1829, during the recess of Congress. On the 29th March following, he was re-appointed for four years, and the Senate confirmed the appointment. When his term expired, in 1834, he was renominated and again confirmed for a like period; at the expiration of

which, March 29, 1838, he went out of office, and transferred the books to Mr. Jesse Hoyt, his successor.

During the whole time of Mr. Swartwout's service as collector, suspicions do not seem to have been awakened at the head of the department that he was guilty of any default—unless it may be that the balance of money in his hands, when he was re-nominated to the Senate, in 1834, appeared to be too large, and caused some inquiry in relation to the subject. The collector and one of his clerks, however, went on to Washington, and submitted explanations to a committee of the Senate, which obviated any objections to his re-appointment.

The first misuse of the public money by this officer, appears to have commenced in 1830. A series of defalcations, in various items of his accounts, seem to have followed, and continued through each successive year, increasing constantly in amount, till near the close of his official term. They consisted in withholding a part of the tonnage duties, and a portion of the forfeitures and fines; in not accounting for all the bonds collected, nor all the moneys on hand held either for office expenses, return duties, or in advance of the adjustment of unascertained duties; and in procuring from the treasury, under the act of 1834, and similar ones, larger sums for the balance of office salaries than the facts warranted.

His accounts were rendered weekly, in a condensed form, to the department, and exhibited usually a balance in his hands ranging from a mere nominal sum to one hundred thousand dollars. His last return before leaving office exhibited a balance on hand of $122,977, which was near $30,000 less than the amount of his official bond. The return sent after going out of office, which included only the last three days of his term, showed $201,096 in his possession, which he was requested forthwith to pay over. This he refused to do, alledging it was necessary for him to hold a balance in order to meet suits which had been instituted against him for return duties, &c.

Upon inquiry, some additional particulars were elicited: On the last day of December, 1830, Mr. Swartwout's deficit was only $622. At the close of his first term, $50,370. At the final expiration of his office, the gross amount abstracted had swelled to the unprecedented sum of $1,225-705. This enormous amount, it appeared, had been mainly dissipated in Wall-street, in the purchase of stocks of various descriptions, for speculating purposes. The only palpable property of the defaulter which could be discovered, seemed to be some tracts of land in Texas, with an interest in the Cumberland coal mines, and certain meadow lots in New Jersey near Hoboken. His securities, Messrs. Birdsall, Quackenboss, and Livingston, were prosecuted, but not a moiety of the extraordinary deficit recovered.

Congress ordered a very minute examination into the manner of conducting business in New-York. The House of Representatives appointed a committee of inquiry for the purpose, consisting of nine members, viz., Messrs. Wise and Hopkins, of Virginia, Owens and Dawson, of Georgia, Harlan, of Kentucky, Smith, of Maine, Wagener, of Pennsylvania, and Foster and Curtis, of New-York. These gentlemen went on, with full powers to compel the presence of persons and papers, and so faithfully fulfilled the duties of their appointment as to occupy three months in settling their minds upon a conclusion. The grand result, however, was the enactment of very stringent regulations for the prevention, in future, of anything so unparalleled in the line of defalcation.

While on the subject of lawsuits, we may mention, that the case of Joseph Bonaparte *et als.*, of Bordentown, N. J., *vs.* the kingdom of France, was this year decided in favour of the *defendant*. This was the state of the case: Napoleon Bonaparte, upon his return from Egypt, neglected to call upon the paymaster's department for the trifling sum of seven hundred and fifty francs, which appeared to be just the total due him on the

books of the war office. Subsequently, multifarious engagements precluded any attention to the matter, and the hero died without having acted at all in regard to this claim. Now, however, upon a computation of interest, the small amount was found to have increased to the respectable sum of 15,000,000 francs; whereupon the Bonaparte brothers, Joseph and Jerome, brought suit, as heirs-at-law. After due deliberation, the French courts decided that the survivors could not recover, on the ground that by the treaty of Fontainbleau, in 1814, it was understood Napoleon Bonaparte made over all his rights, privileges, and immunities in France to the new government.

In the month of May, was paid into the hands of the bankers of the United States in London, the sum of sixty-two thousand six hundred and ninety-two dollars, in liquidation of a claim against the kingdom of Holland, for its interference with American commerce about the time of the recent collision with Great Britain.

A claim upon Belgium was also admitted, by the authorities of that Kingdom, for damages done to American property during the siege of Antwerp, and an amount which was mutually satisfactory, agreed upon and paid.

In the same year, a treaty was negotiated with his majesty, the king of Sardinia, by which American products were to be admitted free of duty in his dominions with but one or two exceptions. It is a singular fact, that the first treaty ever made by that Kingdom with any other nation, was this with America—a country discovered to the world by one of its own citizens—Christopher Columbus, being by birth a Genoese.

The twenty-sixth Congress commenced its regular session on the 2d of December. Among its acts, was one authorizing the taking of the sixth census of the United States. Also, to show what a "rising people" we are, it may be casually remarked, that, before the close of this session, new offices were created by the law-makers, calling for immediate appropriations of near $40,000, as follows:

Special minister to Great Britain, salary and outfit	$18,000
Minister resident to Turkey	6,000
Commissioner for running the boundary between the U. S. and Texas	2,000
Commissioner and clerk to examine claims under the treaty of 1837 with the Sioux Indians	5,500
Assistant examiners in the patent office	2,500
To the chief-justice of the district court of the District of Columbia, for duties imposed on him by the "act in addition to an act to promote the progress of the useful arts"	100
Two additional clerks in the office of the clerk of the House of Representatives of the United States, at $1,500 each	3,000

A recapitulation of the gross amounts required to be set apart by the same Congress for the support of the usual national relations for the space of one year, may not be unworthy a passing note:

Civil and diplomatic	$9,010,081
Army, fortifications, and Military Academy	16,556,253
Navy	5,130,781
Revolutionary and other pensioners	2,499,020
Current expenses of the Indian department	1,755,007
Preventing and suppressing Indian hostilities	1,856,774
To promote the progress of the useful arts	9,259
Private claims	45,065
Total,	$36,862,260.

Some considerable additions were made to the United States' navy in the

course of this year. Steamers, and small vessels of war of an improved build, were launched at the different naval stations, and sent on experimental trips. One at Philadelphia, the "Dale," named in honour of the first commodore of the infant navy of the States, was christened by a son of that distinguished officer, who wore, on the occasion of the ceremony, a massive gold-hilted sword which was presented to his father by the renowned Paul Jones (who received it from King Louis XVI. of France) for his bravery as first lieutenant under him in the fierce action between the Bon Homme Richard and Serapis.

Requiescat in pace!—Departed this life, "full of years and full of honours," at Albany, N. Y., General Du Coudray Holstein, formerly of Napoleon's staff; same place, General Stephen Van Rensselaer, *the patroon*. In New-York, Rev. J. B. Seixas, Rabbi-leader to the Jewish synagogue Shearish-Israel; same place, æ 68, Joseph Lancaster, founder of the Lancasterian school-system; same place, William Leggett, editor, etc. In Charleston, South-Carolina, æ 89, Stephen Thomas, "the last of the Huguenots." At Asheville, North-Carolina, æ 49, General Robert Y. Hayne. In Florida, Colonel J. M. White. In Texas, L. Rathbun, of Buffalo; also Hon. William Brenan. At Utica, New-York, Antoine Latour, a soldier of the revoluton. At Newburgh, Hon C. C. De Witt, late chargé at Guatemala. In Massachusetts, Theodore Sedgewick. In Washington, Commodore Patterson. Near New-York, Commodore M'Kinney. In Jersey City, Colonel Aaron Ogden, æ 83. At Baltimore, General Samuel Smith, æ 87; same place, Colonel William Steuart, æ 59. In the Cherokee nation, by murder, John Ridge, a chief. At Oneida Castle, æ 96, the chieftain Ondayak. In the Seneca tribe, the chief Big-Kettle. In Wilmington, Delaware, æ 63, Hezekiah Niles, of the National Register. In Philadelphia, Matthew Carey. At Newcastle, Delaware, Hon. J. R. Black. In Missouri, Hon. A. G. Harrison. At St. Louis, Colonel Keene, of New-Orleans. At New-Orleans, Baron Hackett, of Holland, cousin-german to the comedian. In Albany, Benjamin Knower, state-treasurer. In New-York, William Dunlap, an author. In Connecticut, Judge Jesse Beun. On Long Island, King David, a chief, the last of the Montauks. In Kentucky, Governor Clarke. At Burlington, Iowa, Hon. W. B. Conway. In Indiana, Senator Tipton. In Louisiana, General E. W. Ripley, the defender of Fort Erie. At Portsmouth, New-Hampshire, æ 90, John Cochrane, the last of the Boston "Tea Party." In New-London, Daniel Keeney, a pilot for the frigate "United States" at the time of her chase by the British 74 "Valiant," and who, by manœuvring adroitly about a sunken rock, caused the enemy to strike, and with difficulty make his escape to Halifax. In Vermont, æ 35, Zerah Colburn, wonderful in early life as an arithmetical calculator. In New-Hampshire, Jonathan Mason, æ 74; he was taken prisoner in the revolution by General Burgoyne, and on being brought before that officer, was asked, "Well, my fine fellow, what do you think of yourself now?" "Same as I always did." "But what do you think of being a prisoner of war?" "Why, that it'll be your turn next." "Bah! all the Yankees in America can't do it"—but they did. Off Tampico, lost overboard, Lieutenant H. J. Paul, U. S. N. In Florida, Captain G. H. Griffin, U. S. A. In Maryland, Colonel Gist, æ 94. At Montevideo, Albert Triplet, of the District of Columbia. In France, General Count Bernard, for whom the American army was ordered in mourning. In London, Admiral Sir Isaac Coffin, formerly of Boston. At Toronto, Upper Canada, Duncan Cameron, provincial secretary. At Greenock, Scotland, John Galt, author. At Bath, England, General Sir Thomas Dallas: also, Sir Henry Trollope. In London, Lady Flora Hastings, æ 33. At her villa on Mount Lebanon, near Sidon, Syria, Lady Hester Stanhope, æ 63. In Rome, Cardinal Fesch, uncle to Napoleon; he left 200,000 scudi (1,070,000 francs) to build a church in Ajaccio, Corsica, wherein himself and sis-

ter were to be buried, and the rest of the family might have their hearts deposited in urns, if they wished. At Port Republicain, Prince Saunders, a colored gentleman, native of Vermont, at time of decease attorney-general for the kingdom of Hayti. In Constantinople, Turkey, the grand sultan, Mahmoud II. In India, Rajah Runjeet Singh, chief of Lahore and Cachemire. In Stockholm, Archbishop Waller. In Copenhagen, Frederick VI. of Denmark.

A. D. 1840.—We come now to the consideration of those numerous bickerings which have from time to time arisen between the American and Mexican governments. In fact, about this period, there does not appear to be much else of a national character to refer to. A jealousy of long standing is apparent between these two nations: though if it be true that "he who is first to lose temper may be put down as generally in the wrong," when solving knotty points, Mexico may be said to have had the worst of it. Perhaps the widely different and irreconcilable views of the two nations upon religious matters, may be looked upon as the ground-work of all the heart-burnings and envy which has heretofore so incessantly been breaking out between them. The Romish priesthood, with its horror of "infidels," and doctrine of infallibility, has now so strongly entwined itself about the body politic of that ill-fated nation, as to render its mental elevation almost an impossibility; and, consequently, any approximation on the part of that people towards a true spirit of friendliness for any nation without the pale of "the church" a matter of much difficulty. To this cause, probably, more than any other, may be attributed the present unhappy state of the province, whose government, even at this day, is in a state bordering upon anarchy.

Troubles have existed between Mexico and almost every mercantile nation of the globe. Great Britain owns her valuable mines: France was forced to destroy her powerful castle of San Juan d'Ulloa: and Vera Cruz and Tampico have been bombarded on various occasions. The very fertility of soil and beauty of climate for which the Spanish ancestry of the present Mexicans exterminated the Aztec "children of the sun," seem now to be working out, by means of incessant internal insurrections, a retributive vengeance upon their own heads. The government, from beginning, has been without strength; disturbances of every grade, revolt and bloodshed, unhappily prevail, and characterize the existence of the state.

Shortly after Mexico had thrown off the yoke of Spain, "while yet reeling to the music of her broken fetters," she issued a declaration that land, in the largest and most liberal grants, should be given to whomsoever would emigrate to, and settle permanently in, the then wild province of Texas. That land was at the time almost entirely unreclaimed from a state of nature, though it was represented, and with much truth, to be beautiful and exceedingly rich. Population flocked in rapidly, and settled the coasts, and rolling lands adjoining the territory of the United States. Perhaps the feverish haste with which the new comers arrived, prevented their giving a due consideration to certain *conditions* which were subsequently found to be affixed to their gifts of soil. A precaution had been taken, in the first place, to unite the dependency of Texas with that of Coahuila, in which a Spanish population was comparatively numerous; this was with a view to secure a continuance of connexion of the newly-peopled country with Mexico. Also, according to the forms prescribed for the *empresario* grants of land, the number and duties of the new settlers were distinctly specified; they were all bound to profess the Roman Catholic faith, and to instruct their children in the same; to consider the Spanish language their national tongue, and have their children early taught it; and, after the year 1840, to suffer taxation in the same manner as other Mexican subjects, for the support of government.

So long as these conditions were observed, affairs seem to have glided

along pretty smoothly; but as nine-tenths of the new colonists were Anglo-Americans, they could not but feel a yearning towards the land of their birth, with its freedom from even such slight shackles as were already imposed on them in that new home which they fancied was to prove altogether delightful. With the Mexican, adhering devoutly to the faith of his fathers, not to be Catholic was to be an outcast from all religion; and the union of the colonist to the invisible church, was made an *indispensible* condition of citizenship. To claim baptism as a convenient form, and then sneer at its obligations, was in Mexican eyes an evidence of hardened depravity. To the colonist, on the other hand, who from his infancy had been taught to believe the union of church and state adulterous, demoralizing, and in no way binding on the consciences of freemen, the formal demand of a certificate of baptism in the Catholic church was a mockery, and he met the demand with a mock certificate (which was purchasable, regularly filled out, at $2), for he considered it a mere form, and of no more consequence than the colour of the paper on which it was written.

As the Texians became more and more numerous, a desire to be INDEPENDENT grew among them; and it is said their leading men had that grand ulterior object in view; when they demanded of the Mexican government a separation of their province from the state of Coahuila. Moreover, the settlement of Texas was principally by slaveholders, each of whom brought with him a greater or lesser number of slaves, upon whom he relied entirely to redeem from its wild state and make serviceable his new acquisition. From this cause a new difficulty arose: Mexico, possessing but few slaves, was in 1823 so very liberal as to pass a law, prohibiting the buying and selling of bondmen—although their introduction into the country was not prohibited. In 1830, the further introduction of slaves into the country was forbidden; and the children of slaves born after the year 1823, it was declared, should be free at the age of fourteen. Here, then, was impending ruin, closely staring the colonists in the face. The law, indeed, was in itself equitable, and its intentions fair, but it created a feeling of distrust and insecurity in the minds of the Texians. A separation, therefore, was resolved upon.

In Mexico, about this time, General Santa Anna appeared to have succeeded in establishing his own authority, and the central system of government, of which he was the head, when the first Texian "rebellion" unexpectedly broke out, and threatened to overturn both his newly-promulgated "system" and personal power together. It is said the revolted Texians had obtained a loan of $200,000 in New-Orleans; and by means of this, vessels were fitted out, aid invoked from the citizens of the United States, and, at the close of 1835, a regular standard of revolt established and rallied around. A formal declaration of indepedence was published. In that document it was proclaimed, that they had taken up arms in defence of their rights and liberty, and the republican principles of the Mexican federal constitution of 1824.

Santa Anna, in the meanwhile, had been collecting an army to reconquer the province by force. In the beginning of the year 1836, he marched from Santillo. He retook Bexar, and advanced into the interior, where he is accused of having perpetrated the most inexcusable barbarities. It was the middle of April before he reached the main body of the Texian army, which was under the command of General Sam. Houston, who had prepared to receive him on the banks of the San Jacinto. On the 19th, some skirmishing took place between the two armies, but nothing was effected; on the 20th, Santa Anna fortified himself in a camp on the bank of the river. Early on the 21st, he was in that position attacked by the Texians, and in a short time completely routed; the Mexican cavalry was at the first put to flight, and never even rallied. Santa Anna was forced to fly from his breastworks, and attempted to make his escape in disguise,

He was taken the day following, and conducted to Houston's camp, where some captive soldiers betrayed his rank by exclaiming, with surprize, his name. Instead of being instantly shot, or hanged, as he had every reason to expect he would be, Santa Anna was protected from the enraged relatives of those whom he had but a short time before caused to be, in cold blood, massacred; and he was subsequently (after a detention of near a year) conveyed through the country to the United States, from whence, by the favour of General Jackson, he was despatched home to Vera Cruz in an American national vessel.

The loss of the Mexicans at San Jacinto, was six hundred and thirty men killed, two hundred and eight wounded, and seven hundred and thirty made prisoners. That of the Texians, six killed and twenty-six wounded. Santa Anna's army was represented to have numbered sixteen hundred men, while that of Houston consisted of but eight hundred. On the very day of the taking of the *ci-devant* president of Mexico, while a prisoner without possibility of rescue, he sent imperative orders to the generals of other divisions of the Mexican army to retreat, and headed his dispatches, with great *naïveté*, "God and liberty!" "Coast division under my command," &c., as if he were still generalissimo. His first communication from the enemy's camp began as follows:

TO GENERAL VINCENTE FILASOLA.

"*Army of Operations,*
"*Coast Division, under my command.*

"Having yesterday had an unfortunate encounter, I have resolved to remain a prisoner of war in the hands of the enemy. After having taken every precaution, I therefore hope that your excellency will cause the division under the command of General Parza to countermarch to Bexar, where he will wait for orders. Your excellency will also return to the same place, and order General Viesca, with his division, to Guadaloupe Victoria. I have agreed on an armistice with General Houston, *ad interim*, until we can agree upon terms of lasting peace.

"Your excellency will take such measures as may be necessary for the subsistence of the army, which will remain under your command. The money that has arrived at Matamoras, and the provisions of the place, and those at Victoria, will be distributed, &c., &c., &c.

"God and Liberty,

"ANTONIO LOPEZ de SANTA ANNA.

"*Camp Jacinto, April* 22, 1836.

In the month of May, 1836, at the city of Velasco, then seat of government for the "Republic of Texas," a formal treaty was drawn up, stipulating for peace, amity, commerce, etcetera, which was duly witnessed, and signed by Santa Anna, president of Mexico, and David G. Burnet, president of Texas. In pursuance with an understanding, Santa Anna was then taken to Columbia and embarked in a vessel for Mexico—when, a band of volunteers under General Green arriving, the Mexican chief was forced to disembark and return to captivity. It was only through General Sam. Houston he at length escaped from Texas, and arrived in Vera Cruz, *via*. the United States, towards the last of February, 1837. There he found his enemy, Bustamente at the head of the turbulent government; Don Jose Maria Tornel was secretary of war, and with principles conveniently changeable, he had pronounced the sub-generals of his ex-chief, Santa Anna all traitors for having obeyed the commands of their superior, and paused in their career of capture or subjugation in Texas. Santa Anna, on his return home to Manga de Clavo, published a lengthy appeal to his fellow-citizens, detailing his adventures, and vindicating his conduct.

The Mexican government refusing to acknowledge the validity of the treaty entered into between President Burnet of Texas, and General Santa Anna of Mexico, announced that it was resolved, at every risk, (if means could be procured), to re-conquer the estranged province. About the same

time, an indirect demonstration was made in favour of the Texians, by General Gaines, at the head of a division of the regular army of the United States. This was not anticipated by either party in the dispute, and demands some explanation. It seems, in the end of June, 1836, news arrived in Texas that the Mexicans were advancing in great force, having secured the co-operation of a large body of Camanche and other savages. The well-known lawlessness of Indian warfare induced General Gaines, whose powers were discretionary, to cross the Sabine for the protection of his own frontier. He accordingly marched forward as far as Nacogdoches, about forty miles beyond the Sabine, within the territory of Texas, and there constructed temporary barracks, and awaited quietly the results. A report of two men being murdered about the same time near the line, by a party of Indians, gave colour to the "expediency" of his march over the border and occupation of an exposed fort. He further wrote to the governors of certain Southern and Western states, that he might possibly soon call upon them for a few companies of mounted riflemen, to join and co-operate with his "corps of observation." President Jackson peremptorily forbade this interference, and ordered that the United States' troops should be returned as soon as practicable to Fort Jesup.

Señor Goristiza, the envoy of Mexico at Washington city, upon learning the advance of General Gaines into the disputed territory, suspended the further examination of American claims, with which his attention was just then occupied, and determined to consider his mission at an end. He asserted in his letter declining to act further in a public capacity, that General Gaines had no right whatever to occupy any post in Texas until the then agitated question of right to the territory should be finally disposed of. Mr. Forsyth, secretary for the American government, replied, that the crossing of the line had been a mere matter of police, and as nothing whatever had grown out of it, he begged the Mexican minister to be pacified. He pointed, also, to the fact that a treaty was in existence between the United States and Mexico, by which it was stipulated that both nations should endeavour to maintain order on the common boundary, and use every means to prevent the transpiration of Indian disturbances and massacre. The Mexican minister turned a deaf ear to the explanation and remonstrance, and persisted in the declaration that his embassage, for cause set forth, should cease.

General Jackson, in his message at the close of 1836, referred in terms of severest animadversion to this act of the late chargé from Mexico, and his government, in countenancing it. On the 6th of February following, the president deemed our relations with Mexico in so critical a condition as to call for a special message to the Senate. "At the beginning of the session," said he, "Congress was informed that our claims upon Mexico had not been adjusted, but that notwithstanding the irritating effect upon her councils of the movements in Texas, I hoped, by great forbearance, to avoid the necessity of again bringing them before your notice. That hope has been disappointed. Having in vain urged upon the government the justice of those claims and my indispensable obligation that there should be no further delay in the acknowledgement, if not in the redress of the injuries complained of, my duty requires that the whole subject should be presented and now is, for the action of Congress, whose exclusive right it is to decide on the farther measure of redress to be employed. The length of time since some of the injuries have been committed, the repeated and unavailing applications for redress, the wanton character of some of the outrages upon the property and persons of our citizens, and upon the flag of the United States, independent of recent insults to this government and people, by the late extraordinary minister, would justify in the eyes of all nations immediate war." In conclusion, it was submitted, whether it was not advisable, "that an act should be passed,

authorizing reprisals, and the use of the naval force of the United States, by the executive against Mexico, to enforce them, in the event of a refusal by the Mexican government to come to an amicable adjustment of the matter in controversy."

The message was referred to the committee on foreign relations, which not long afterwards made its report. After stating, among other grievances, that the merchant ships of the United States had been fired into, her citizens attacked and even put to death, and her ships of war treated with disrespect, even when paying a friendly visit to a port, where they had a right to expect hospitality, the committee submitted to the House of Representatives two resolutions, viz.

1. "That the indignities offered to the American flag, and injuries committed upon the persons and property of American citizens, by officers of the Mexican government, and the refusal, or the neglect of that government, to make suitable atonement, would justify the Congress of the United States in taking measures to obtain immediate redress, by the exercise of its own power."

2. "That, as evidence of a desire on the part of the American government to preserve peaceful relations with the government of Mexico, as long as is compatible with that dignity, which it is due to the people of the United States to preserve unimpaired, the president be, and is hereby respectfully requested, to make another solemn demand, in the most impressive form, upon the government of Mexico, for the redress of the grievances, which have heretofore been ineffectually presented to its notice."

This report was presented to the House and agreed to, in the month of February. Not long after, a new minister was accredited by Mexico to the United States, and negotiations were renewed. A new cloud, however, was rising in the horizon. In July succeeding, Mr. Mason of Virginia, in the House of Representatives from the committee on foreign affairs, to which the subject had been referred, laid before the house the following resolutions, which were agreed to:

1. *Resolved*, That the independence of Texas ought to be acknowledged by the United States, whenever satisfactory information shall be received that it has in successful operation a civil government capable of performing the duties, and fulfilling the obligations of an independent power.

2. *Resolved*, That the House of Representatives perceive with satisfaction that the president of the United States has adopted means to ascertain the political, military, and civil condition of Texas.

The United States representatives also, following the example of England, directed, "That the committee of ways and means should be instructed to provide, in the bill for the civil and diplomatic expenses of the government, a salary and outfit for such public agent as the president may determine to send to Texas." The Mexican minister of foreign affairs, Don José Ortiz, upon this put forth a spirited protest. He asked of the American government, indignantly, what comparison could be instituted between the people of Mexico and those of Texas? "Is the position of the Texians," he continued, "with regard to Mexico, what that of the Mexicans was with regard to Spain, at the time their independence was recognized by the United States? Is there any similarity between a nation consisting of six millions of people, who, by their own efforts, after a bloody struggle of eleven years' duration, cast off the yoke of oppression, and repulsed beyond the sea the ruling armies—and some thousands of wandering and houseless persons, without virtue, and without religion, and threatened by a numerous army, marching full of enthusiasm to recover the the laurels which the caprice of fortune refused them at San Jacinto?" After this, the Texian agent at Washington was informed officially, that no negotiation on the subject of the formal recognition of the

independence of Texas, could be opened, so long as war continued to prevail between that province and the Mexican republic.

After a lapse of eight years, we find the independence of Texas still unacknowledged by Mexico, although her government has been uninterruptedly in operation and her ministers have been received and recognized at all the principal courts of Europe. Mexico still neglects, or is unable to satisfy claims of the United States, which she admits to be just—although, if rumour, with its thousand tongues, speaks truly, an unusually amicable negotiation is now in progress between the governments, which will ere long place the relation of the two nations in a mutually satisfactory and friendly light.

In the beginning of this year arrived at New-York the Arabian ship Sultanne, being freighted principally with presents from his *Sultanic* majesty, the Imaum of Muscat, to the president of the United States. It may not be generally known, that a few years previous to this a United States' vessel was accidentally run aground on his coast, in a dangerous position, when he sent assistance by which she was got afloat again without much damage. Upon the arrival of the Sultanne in New-York, a committee of five from each board of the common council was appointed to receive the captain of said ship, Achmet Ben Aman, and extend to him the hospitalities of the city. His vessel was taken into the navy-yard at Brooklyn and overhauled, and put in thorough repair, by order of government. Mr. Van Buren being debarred, constitutionally, from accepting the well-meant offerings of the Imaum, they were sold, and the proceeds placed in the treasury. In return, Congress appropriated the sum of $15,000, to be expended in the purchase of such articles as would probably be most acceptable to the friendly Arabian ruler.

Monsieur Alexandre Vattemare, a philosophic citizen of France, this year laid before the American Congress a memorial, setting forth the advantages to be derived from a favourable consideration of his system of international exchanges. It was proposed to exchange copies of the duplicate works usually to be found in all great national libraries, as well as minerals from the different museums, and rare geological specimens, or other natural curiosities, of whatever description, one nation with another. Congress viewed favourably the project and decreed, 1. That the United States librarian, under the supervision of the committee on the library, be authorized to exchange such duplicates as may be in the library, for other books or works. 2. That he be authorized, in the same way, to exchange documents. 3. That hereafter fifty additional copies of each volume of documents printed by order of either house, be printed and bound, for the purpose of exchange in foreign countries. In accordance with these resolutions, near one thousand volumes were selected and set apart, as suitable for the purposes of exchange with foreign libraries; and M. Vattemare was also furnished with many valuable specimens from the private cabinets of the president and several other public officers at Washington. Different cities presented sets of laws and ordinances, and other works; so that in this, as in other countries, the plan of the philosopher seemed to be favourably regarded.

The president's message at the close of this year was delayed a little, not being delivered before the 24th of December. It proved a very lengthy and elaborate document, much of which was devoted to a review of the American banking system, which it scourged and excoriated most unmercifully. Considering that Mr. Van Buren charged his defeat in the contest for the presidency, which had just been concluded, mainly to the influence of the moneyed institutions of the country, he may be pardoned, in a great measure, for his unsparing severity.

This election for president was the great event of the year. The attention of all parties and all clases appeared to be fully engrossed with the

subject; and the favourers of each side of the question seemed alike confident of their eventual success. General William H. Harrison, of Ohio, was exalted to the presidency over Mr. Van Buren, by the very large and unexpected majority of one hundred and fourteen thousand four hundred and seventy-five votes. General Harrison was a descendant of one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and had himself always sustained a high and unsullied character in every relation of life; he was known to be brave as a soldier and just as a citizen; he was regarded wise as a statesman also; but as he was not generally known as a politician, the extraordinary number of votes polled for him was viewed with surprize.

A single sentence in Mr. Van Buren's farewell message, deserves to be chronicled. He viewed, he said, with peculiar satisfaction the benefits that sprung from the steady devotion of the husbandman to his honourable pursuit. "No means," it was added, "of individual comfort is more certain, and no source of national prosperity is so sure. Nothing can compensate a people for a dependance upon others for the bread they eat; and that cheerful abundance on which the happiness of everyone so much depends is to be looked for nowhere with such sure reliance as in the industry of the agriculturist and the bounties of the earth."

In glancing at the names of those who have departed, it becomes our painful duty to record another appalling calamity. The steamboat Lexington, plying between New-York and Stonington, was burnt in January, and near two hundred lives lost. The magnitude of this loss was owing, in some degree, to the imprudence of passengers, who attempted leaving the vessel in boats while she was still under way. The fire originated in carelessness, as usual; bales of cotton had been piled close upon the furnaces and around the smoke-pipe of the ill-fated boat. Died, in Washington, Commodore Stevens; also, Col. C. R. Broom, U. S. M. In Baltimore, Hon. W. S. Ramsay, of Pennsylvania. In South Carolina, Governor Noble. In Connecticut, Hon. T. Betts. In Boston, Rev. Dr. Kirkland. At Ballston Spa., Hon. A. Brown. At West Point, Lieutenant Bransford, U. S. A. At Alexandria, D. C., Major S. Cooper. In Lexington, Ky., Captain Fowler. In Mississippi, General Hinds, one of the defenders of New-Orleans. In Alabama, Col. Thomas Riddle. In Tennessee, Judge Hugh L. White; also, Hon. Felix Grundy. In Virginia, Capt. Wash. Hood, U. S. engineers; also, Judge Parker; also, at Charlottesville, professors Davis and Bonnycastle. In Kentucky, General Adair, who commanded under Jackson at New-Orleans; also, Hon. S. H. Anderson. In New-York, the eccentric Ex-Sheriff Parkins, of London. In Albany, by the fall of a draw-bridge, twenty persons were drowned. On Red River, Timothy Flint, a celebrated writer of the west. In Arkansas, Colonel Cheatham, an officer under Marion. In New-Jersey, Hon. J. Rutherford, the last of the senators who served under Washington. In Vermont, Ex-governor Chittenden. In Florida, Colonel Green, U. S. A. In Texas, Colonel Karnes. In France, Captain Thomas Oxford, who was buried, pursuant to will, with an American flag for his winding-sheet. In England, Lord Durham, late governor-general of the Canadas. At Hanover, the celebrated Doctor Graff. In Paris, Doctor Morison, "the hygeist." In London, murdered by his valet, Lord William Russell. In Venice, æ 80, Count Guiccioli, husband to one of Byron's heroines. In Paris, the English admiral Sir Sydney Smith, æ 76. In London, Henry Cromwell Field, last descendant of "the Protector." In Paris, Sanson, "the executioner." At Caraccas, J. G. A. Williamson, American chargé d'affaires. In Wales, in a mad-house, the celebrated Beau Brummel, "companion of George IV." At Nice, Italy, Paganini, the violinist. In Rome, Lucien Bonaparte, youngest brother of Napoleon. At St. James' palace, the princess Augusta, æ 72. At Berlin, æ 70, Frederick William III. of Prussia.

A. D. 1841.—On the 4th of March, William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, was inaugurated president of the United States—John Tyler, of Virginia, having been elected with him to the vice-presidency. The ceremony was performed in the presence of an immense concourse of citizens, and the address delivered was lengthy and elaborate. The new president pledged himself to carry out, to the letter, the views of the party which had elevated him to the highest dignity in the gift of the nation; which views, he considered, were indispensable to the real well-being of both government and people. The subjoined passage from his inaugural, conveys the tone of the entire address:

"When the Constitution of the United States first came from the hands of the convention which formed it, many of the sternest republicans of the day were alarmed at the extent of the power which had been granted to the federal government, and more particularly of that portion which had been assigned to the executive branch. There were in it features which appeared not to be in harmony with their simple representative democracy or republic. And, knowing the tendency of power to increase itself, particularly when exercised by a single individual, predictions were made, that, at no very remote period, the government would terminate in virtual monarchy. It would not become me to say that the fears of these patriots have been yet realized. But, as I sincerely believe that the tendency of measures, and of men's opinions, for some years past, has been in that direction, it is, I conceive, strictly proper that I should take this occasion to repeat the assurances I have heretofore given of my determination to arrest the progress of that tendency, if it really exists, and restore the government to its pristine health and vigour, as far as this can be effected by any legitimate exercise of the power placed in my hands. Of the former, is the eligibility of the same individual to a second term of the presidency. The sagacious mind of Mr. Jefferson early saw and lamented this error, and attempts have been made, hitherto without success, to apply the amendatory power of the states to its correction. As, however, one mode of correction is in the power of every president, and consequently in mine, it would be useless, and perhaps invidious, to enumerate the evils of which, in the opinion of many of our fellow-citizens, this error of the sages who framed the Constitution may have been the source, and the bitter fruits which we are still to gather from it, if it continues to disfigure our system. It may be observed, however, as a general remark, that republicans can commit no greater error than to adopt or continue any feature in their systems of government which may be calculated to create or increase the love of power in the bosoms of those to whom necessity obliges them to commit the management of their affairs. And surely nothing is more likely to produce such a state of mind than the long continuance of an office of high trust. Nothing can be more corrupting, nothing more destructive of all those noble feelings which belong to the character of a devoted republican patriot. When this corrupting passion once takes possession of the human mind, like the love of gold, it becomes insatiable. It is the never-dying worm in his bosom, grows with his growth, and strengthens with the declining years of its victim. If this is true, it is the part of wisdom for a republic to limit the service of that officer, at least, to whom she has intrusted the management of her foreign relations, the execution of her laws and the command of her armies and navies, to a period so short as to prevent his forgetting that he is the accountable agent, not the principal—the servant not the master. Until an amendment of the Constitution can be effected, public opinion may secure the desired object. I give my aid to it by renewing the pledge heretofore given, that, under no circumstances, will I consent to serve a second term."

The liberal professions of the president, however, he was destined never

to carry into execution. His toilsome journey from the west in mid-winter, combined with an exchange of quietude for constant bustle, as well as the general excitement of the times, was too much for his failing constitution to endure. Just one month from his assumption of the reins of government, on the 4th of April, General Harrison lay a pallid corpse in the presidential mansion. So perished a liberal minded statesman, and with him the high hopes of a numerous body of citizens. The entire nation was moved with sadness and surprise upon learning the mournful event, and all the people united in doing honour to his memory. The funeral procession in the city of Washington extended over two miles, and was the longest ever witnessed there. The president died after a brief illness, at the age of 69, and was the first who died in office.

John Tyler, vice-president, by a provision of the Constitution, became president for the unexpired term. He arrived at the seat of government from Virginia, on the day after the president's decease, and was duly sworn into office. He retained the cabinet officers just appointed by General Harrison, who were the following-named: Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, Secretary of State; Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; John Bell, of Tennessee, Secretary of War; George E. Badger of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Francis Granger, of New-York, Postmaster General; J. J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, Attorney General. Samuel L. Southard, a member from New-Jersey, was elected by the senate to fill the chair just vacated by John Tyler.

On the 31st of May, an extra session of Congress, which had been convoked by General Harrison, assembled and commenced its labours. Much was expected by the people at large from the action of this body; yet nothing of particular importance was realized. One of the earliest measures of the session, was the passage of a general bankrupt law—but this being found to work iniquitously, its privileges being abused, it was subsequently repealed. In the month of July, a bill was introduced for the establishment of a National Bank. This passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, and was sent to the president for his signature; when, to the astonishment of every one, Mr. Tyler returned the bill with a veto message. He set forth his views at length with reference to the measure, but they may be all summed up as follows: That he had always been opposed to such a bank; that this was perfectly well known at the time of his election to the vice-presidency; and that he had since seen no reasons for changing his opinions on the subject. A second bill for a Fiscal bank of the United States was prepared, after consultation of the president with his cabinet, and certain members of the House of Representatives. This also, was vetoed. Mr. Tyler's cabinet thereupon threw up their commissions, with the exception of Mr. Webster, assigning for reason a capriciousness and whimsicality on the part of the president. The non-resignation of Mr. Webster was strongly animadverted upon at the time, but subsequent results fully justified the conduct of that able statesman.

Mr. Van Buren, upon this action of the president, published a letter in which he highly applauded his conduct. The people, however, considered the frustration by Mr. Tyler of a great measure of the party which elected him, a traitorous act, and in several places he was burnt in effigy. The new members of the cabinet, appointed in place of those who had resigned, were the following: Walter Forward, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; Abel P. Upshur, of Virginia, Secretary of the Navy; John C. Spencer, of New-York, Secretary of War; Hugh S. Legare, of South Carolina, Attorney General; Charles C. Wickliffe, of Kentucky, Postmaster General.

Congress made an appropriation of $25,000 to Mrs. Harrison, for the purpose of reimbursing, in some degree, the losses sustained by the Gen-

eral in removing, for so short a period, to Washington. His remains were disinterred, by desire of the family, and removed to his farm at North Bend.

In the course of the session, a revision of the tariff laws was called up. They were materially modified, after some opposition on the part of Southern members. Some considered the handling of the subject an infraction of Clay's compromise; but the majority were of opinion that the condition of the country called for renewed action, and results proved that they were right.

The census of the United States for 1840 having been completed, the Senate, by a resolution, required the secretary of state to furnish an abstract of the same. The total population of the Union was 17,068,112 souls. The following table shows how the population was apportioned.

	Free persons				*Free persons*		
States.	*Whites.*	*of colour.*	*Slaves.*	*States.*	*Whites.*	*of colour.*	*Slaves.*
Maine,	500,438	1,358	0	Delaware,	58,561	16,919	2,605
New Hampshire,	284,036	537	1	Maryland,	317,717	62,020	89,495
Massachusetts,	729,030	8,668	1	Virginia,	740,968	49,842	448,987
Rhode-Island,	105,587	3,238	5	N. Carolina,	484,870	22,732	245,817
Connecticut,	301,856	8,105	17	S. Carolina,	259,084	8,276	327,038
Vermont,	291,218	730	0	Georgia,	407,695	2,753	280,844
New-York,	2,378,890	50,027	4	Alabama,	335,185	2,039	253,532
New-Jersey,	351,588	24,044	674	Mississippi,	179,074	1.366	195,211
Pennsylvania,	1,676,115	47,854	64	Louisiana,	153,983	24,368	165,219
Ohio,	1,502,122	17,342	3	Tennessee,	640,627	5,524	183,059
Indiana,	678,698	7,165	3	Kentucky,	587,542	7,309	182,072
Illinois,	472,354	3,598	331	Missouri,	323,888	1,574	58,240
Michigan,	211,560	707	0	Arkansas,	77,174	465	19,935
Wisconsin,	30,566	178	8	Florida,	27,723	820	25,559
Iowa,	42,864	153	18	D. of Colum.,	30,657	4,364	4,694
				Total,	14,181,575	2,483,536	386,069

About the beginning of this year, one Alexander McLeod, a Canadian, created some disturbance. He came within the American lines, and being an idle and worthless person, thought to attract some momentary attention by representing himself as one of the mob engaged in the destruction of the steamboat Caroline, some time previous. It seems, in the end, he drew more notice than he expected, or found agreeable. In Lockport, near the New-York frontier, he was taken and held to bail in the recognizance of $5,000 for himself, with two sureties of $2,500 each, for his appearance at court to answer the charges of murder and arson.

It appeared, that an impartial trial could not be had for this man at the west, on account of the excitement against him. He was therefore removed to the city of New-York, and examined before the supreme court of the state, at its May term. Judge Cowan, in a lucid report on the question of jurisdiction, which had been raised, decided that the fate of the prisoner must be determined by the state tribunals, without reference to the action of the general government in the premises.

Meanwhile, a correspondence ensued between Mr. Fox, British Minister at Washington, and the American secretary of state. The English ambassador called upon the American government to take prompt and effectual steps for the liberation of McLeod. "It is well known," said he, "that the destruction of the steamboat *Caroline* was a public act of persons in her majesty's service, obeying the orders of their superior authorities. That act, therefore, according to the usages of nations, can only be the subject of discussion between the two national governments."

Mr. Forsyth, in his reply, after stating the anxious desire of his government to maintain amicable relations between the United States and England, said: "It is, then, with unfeigned regret, that the president finds

himself unable to recognize the validity of a demand, a compliance with which you deem so material to the preservation of the good understanding which has been hitherto manifested between the two countries. The jurisdiction of the several states which constitute the Union, is, within its appropriate sphere, perfectly independent of the federal government. The offence with which McLeod is charged was committed within the territory and against the laws and citizens of the state of New-York, and is one that comes clearly within the competency of her tribunals. It does not, therefore, present an occasion where, under the constitution and laws of the Union, the interposition called for would be proper, for which a warrant can be found in the powers with which the federal executive is invested. Nor would the circumstances to which you have referred, or the reasons you have urged, justify the execution of such a power, if it existed."

Mr. Fox, in reply, regrets this refusal, and intimates that it, together with the ill-treatment of Mr. McLeod, will lead to the most grave and serious consequences. In the interim, counsel for the prisoner, Messrs. Bradley and Joshua A. Spencer, had moved a change of trial from the city of New-York to Utica. There, in the month of October, before Judge Gridley, and others, a lengthy trial was held; when, notwithstanding the abilities of Attorney-general Hall for the people, an *alibi* was proven for the prisoner—and so the matter ended.

In Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, this year, appeared a table which was furnished by the Secretary of State, showing the amount in quantity of the agricultural products of the Union. With the aid of this table an estimate has been made of the value in money of the several products, and the result placed side by side with the population of the states respectively, to show the yield per head in round numbers.

States.	*Value.*	*Pop.*	*Per head.*	*States.*	*Value.*	*Pop.*	*Per head.*
Maine,	$34,720,000	501,793	$69	S. Carolina,	$49,117,800	594,398	$82
N. Hampshire,	25,703,000	284,574	90	Georgia,	58,830,000	691,392	85
Vermont,	43,227,000	291,948	148	Ohio,	84,507,000	1,519,467	55
Massachusetts,	28,809,400	737,799	38	Tennessee,	73,130,000	829,510	88
Rhode Island,	3,745,800	108,830	34	Louisiana,	37,706,000	352,000	106
Connecticut,	22,945,000	309,948	74	Alabama,	42,376,600	590,756	71
New-York,	238,800,000	2,428,921	98	Mississippi,	41,773,000	375,601	111
New-Jersey,	35,911,000	373,308	95	Missouri,	22,309,400	383,702	58
Pennsylvania,	136,249,000	1,724,033	79	Indiana,	47,859,000	685,866	69
Delaware,	6,027,000	78,085	78	Illinois,	35,264,500	476,183	74
Maryland,	43,846,200	469,232	93	Arkansas,	10,536,000	97,574	108
Virginia	102,177,000	1,239,797	82	Iowa,	2,277,000	43,035	53
N. Carolina	40,115,500	484,870	80	Dist. Columbia,	352,000	43,712	7

It will be seen by the foregoing, that only four states produce more than one hundred dollars to each head of the population. Of these, Vermont takes the lead, and must certainly be considered a very enterprising and thrifty state. The average production *per capitem* is seventy-seven dollars and fifty cents. Fourteen members of the Union rise above this average, the remainder stand below it.

The failure of the United States' Bank of Pennsylvania, in February, caused much surprise as well as distress. Its immense capital of $35,000,000 had so dazzled the eyes of the people, that the possibility of such a dark mishap as its ultimate ruin, never entered their bewildered comprehension. In Europe, even, not less than $15,000,000 worth of stock had been purchased, and was distributed among the middling classes in and about London. In New-York, the amount of $7,000,000 had been taken; and the balance was owned by the United States' government, and the states south and west. According to a report of the directors, the bank had, in thirty days from its resumption of specie payments in January,

paid out in cash to keen-eyed brokers $6,000,000; and as demands for as much more were already presented, they were forced to bend to the tempest and suspend. An investigation into the affairs of the bank, which was ordered, resulted in the discovery that the old board of directors had been largely engaged in various extraneous speculations, such as buying up Texas funds, endeavouring to monopolize the cotton market, &c.; this, be it understood, on their own private account, though by means of the bank's funds. Messrs. Biddle, Jaudon, Cowperthwaite, and others, were accordingly indicted for this by the grand jury of Philadelphia; but as those gentlemen had merely expended what they had previously withdrawn, nothing was effected towards establishing the former good credit of the bank.

In the House of Representatives, a member, from the committee on naval affairs, brought in the following statement, showing the gradual increase of the navy—together with a recommendation that the same ratio, both of power and expense, should be maintained:

In 1836,	we had	$7,611,055	appropriated, and	462	guns afloat.
" 1837	"	8,185,710	"	554	"
" 1838	"	5,702,420	"	630	"
" 1839	"	5,264,385	"	596	"
" 1840	"	5,155,120	"	882	"
" 1841	"	5,780,927	"	1,070	"

The new president's unsparing exercise of the veto power, caused a committee of the Representatives to recommend his impeachment—when he addressed that body a message, protesting violently against any such right.

This summer perished, in Syracuse, N.Y., thirty persons instantly, fifty more being badly wounded. Twenty-eight kegs of gunpowder had been stored, contrary to law, in the heart of the city; when, a fire breaking out, they exploded, with this fatal result. The steamboat Erie, of Buffalo, was burned in August, while twenty miles from land, with two hundred passengers on board; one hundred and seventy-five lives were sacrificed; the fire, in this case, was caused by the ignition of a barrel of turpentine. Died, in Washington, Judge Barbour, of Virginia; also, Hon. John Forsyth, æ 60, late Secretary of State; also, General Alexander Macomb, commander-in-chief of the army; also, Colonel R. D. Wainright. In South Carolina, General Griffin. In Tennessee, Governor Cannon. In Pennsylvania, Charles Ogle, M. C.; also, Hon. J. R. Black. In New-York, Henry Brevoort, æ 99, also, Major Shute, æ 82; also Dr. M'Nevin, the companion of Emmet in the Irish "rebellion;" also, Herman Le Roy, Esq., father-in-law of Daniel Webster. In Connecticut, Judge Lanman. In Virginia, Bishop Moore. In Lexington, Ky., Hon. R. H. Menifee. In Geneva, N. Y., Hon. Gideon Lee. In Florida, Ex-governor Reid; also, Judge Winn. In Philadelphia, Dr. S. Calhoun, professor of materia medica; also, Willis Gaylord Clark, poet. In Newburyport, Mass., William Bartlett, Esq., leaving $200,000 to Andover seminary. In New-Orleans, Colonel R. P. Bowie; also, Nicholas Girod, bequeathing to various objects $400,000. In South America, Commodore Claxton. Supposed to have been lost in the *President* steamship, Tyrone Power, comedian. At Gibraltar, Sir David Wilkie, eminent as a painter. In London, Captain S. B. Griffing, of New-York. At Kingston, U. C., Lord Sydenham, Governor-general of the Canadas. In Paris, Samuel Welles, an American banker, leaving a good name and a large fortune, which do not always go together. In London, Sir Philip Brooke, rear-admiral of the red, better known as captain of the Shannon, in her action with the Chesapeake; also, Sir Astley Cooper, M. D., æ 72; also, Theodore Hook, a favourite dramatic author; also, T. Dibdin, the same; also, Sir Francis Chantrey, an eminent sculptor; also, Joseph Chitty, a distinguished lawyer. In Syria, Rev. Mr. Mitchell and lady, both of Connecticut.

A. D. 1842.—Mr. Tyler, in one of his messages, with reference to the state of the country, is remarkably liberal-minded as well as just. In allusion to the public domain, he says: "We have, on this side the Rocky Mountains, the enormous expanse of seven hundred and seventy millions of acres of unoccupied territory, to say nothing of that which lies beyond." And he then further continues, "We hold out to the people of other countries an invitation to come and settle among us, as members of our rapidly-growing family; and for the blessings which we offer them, we require of them only to look upon our country as their country, and to unite with us in the great task of preserving our institutions, and thereby perpetuating our liberties. No motive exists for foreign conquest. We desire but to reclaim our almost illimitable wilderness, and to introduce into their depths the lights of civilization. While we shall at all times be prepared to vindicate the national honour, our most earnest desire will be to maintain an unbroken peace."

In the beginning of this year, a voluminous correspondence, which had commenced between the Hon. Mr. Stevenson, American minister at the court of St. James, and Lord Palmerston, and was continued with Lord Aberdeen, when the latter succeeded to the office of British Secretary of State for foreign affairs, was laid before Congress. The subject in controversy was that ancient and uneasy theme, the right of search. It is interesting, from the importance of the principles of international law discussed between these statesmen.

"The government of Great Britain," commences Mr. Stevenson, "with that of other nations, regarding the African slave trade as a great evil, united in measures for its abolition. For that purpose laws were passed and treaties concluded, giving to the vessels of each of the contracting parties the mutual right of search, under certain limitations. Independent of these treaties, and under the principles of public law, this right of search could not be exercised. The United States were invited to become a party to these treaties; but, for reasons which they deemed satisfactory, and growing out of the peculiar character of their institutions and systems of government, they declined doing so. They deemed it inexpedient, under any modification or in any form, to yield the right of having their vessels searched or interfered with in time of peace upon the high seas.

"In the meantime, some of the powers who were parties to these treaties, and others who refused to become so, continued to prosecute their slave traffic; and to enable them to do so with more effect they resorted to the use of the flags of other nations, but more particularly that of the United States. To prevent this, and enforce her treaties, Great Britain deemed it important that her cruisers in the African seas should have the right of detaining and examining all vessels navigating those seas, for the purpose of ascertaining their national character. Against this practice the government of the United States protested, and the numerous cases out of which the present discussion has arisen, became subjects of complaint and negotiation between the two governments."

The British minister, in his official capacity replying, says: "The undersigned begs leave to state to Mr. Stevenson, in reply to the remarks contained in his last note, that her majesty's government do not pretend that her majesty's naval officers have any right to search American merchantmen met with in time of peace at sea; but there is an essential and fundamental difference between searching a vessel and detaining her papers to see if she is legally provided with documents entitling her to the protection of any country, and especially of the country whose flag she may have hoisted at the time. For though, by common parlance, the word "flag" is used to express the test of nationality, and though, according to that acceptation of the word, her majesty's government admit that British cruizers are not entitled in time of peace to search merchant vessels sail-

ing under the American flag, yet her majesty's government do not mean thereby to say that a merchantman can exempt herself from search by merely hoisting a piece of bunting with the United States emblems and colours upon it: that which her majesty's government means is, that the rights of the United States flag exempt a vessel from search when that vessel is provided with papers entitling her to wear that flag, and proving her to be United States property, and navigated according to law."

The president, in his annual message, very ably reviewed the whole matter, as follows:

"By the 10th article of the treaty of Ghent, it was expressly declared, that, 'Whereas the traffic in slaves is irreconcileable with the principles of humanity and justice; and whereas both His Majesty and the United States are desirous of continuing their efforts to promote its entire abolition, it is hereby agreed that both the contracting parties shall use their best endeavours to accomplish so desirable an object.' In the enforcement of the laws and treaty stipulations of Great Britain, a practice had threatened to grow up on the part of its cruizers of subjecting to visitation ships sailing under the American flag, which, while it seriously involved our maritime rights, would subject to vexation a branch of our trade which was increasing, and which required the fostering care of the government. And although Lord Aberdeen, in his correspondence with the American envoys at London, expressly disclaimed all right to detain any American ship on the high seas, even if found with a cargo of slaves on board, and restricted the British pretensions to a mere claim to visit and inquire, yet it could not well be discovered by the executive of the United States how such visit and inquiry could be made without detention on the voyage, and consequent interruption to the trade. It was regarded as the right of search presented only in a new form, and expressed in different words; and I therefore felt it to be my duty distinctly to declare, in my annual message to Congress, that no such concession could be made, and that the United States had both the will and the ability to enforce their own laws and to protect their flag from being used for purposes wholly forbidden by those laws and obnoxious to the moral censure of the world.

"Taking the message as his letter of instructions, our then minister at Paris, Mr. Cass, felt himself required to assume the same ground in a remonstrance which he felt it his duty to present to M. Guizot, and through him to the king of the French, against what has been called the Quintuple Treaty; and his conduct in this respect met with the approval of this government. In close conformity with these views, the 8th article of the late treaty with Great Britain was framed, which provides that 'each nation shall keep afloat in the African seas a force not less than eighty guns, to act separately and apart, under instructions from their respective governments, and for the enforcement of their respective laws and obligations.' From this it will be seen that the ground assumed in the message has been fully maintained, at the same time that the stipulations of the Treaty of Ghent are to be carried out in good faith by the two countries, and that all pretence is removed for interference with our commerce for any purpose whatever by a foreign government.

"While, therefore, the United States have been standing up for the freedom of the seas, they have not thought proper to make that a pretext for avoiding a fulfilment of their treaty stipulations, or a ground for giving countenance to a trade reprobated by our laws. A similar arrangement by the other great powers could not fail to sweep from the ocean the slave trade, without the interpolation of any new principle into the maritime code. We may be permitted to hope that the example thus set will be followed by one, if not all, of them. We thereby also offer suitable protection to the fair trader in those seas, thus fulfilling at the same time the dictates of a sound policy, and complying with the claims of justice and humanity.

"With the other powers of Europe our relations continue on the most amicable footing. Treaties now existing with them should be rigidly observed, and every opportunity, compatible with the interests of the United States, should be seized upon to enlarge the basis of commercial intercourse. Peace with all the world is the foundation of our policy, which can only be rendered permanent by the practice of equal and impartial justice to all. Our great desire should be to enter only into that rivalry which looks to the general good in the cultivation of the sciences, the enlargement of the field for the exercise of the mechanical arts, and the spread of commerce—that great civilizer—to every land and sea. Carefully abstaining from interference in all questions exclusively referring themselves to the political interests of Europe, we may be permitted to hope an equal exemption from the interference of European governments in what relates to the states of the American continent."

We should, perhaps, observe, that the American minister had previously given to the British government, a discharge from all further liability on account of the *Caroline*, as it had apologized, and as no better reparation from the nature of the case could be had, and as it had also expressed so large a degree of respect and regard for the inviolable and sacred character of our neutral rights, &c., &c.

A case somewhat analagous to that of the *Amistad*, now arose to be noticed: The brig *Creole*, of Richmond, Va., sailed from that port towards the close of the last year, for New-Orleans, with a cargo consisting partly of tobacco, and 135 slaves; some eight or ten days after leaving Hampton Roads, a part of the slaves rose upon the crew of the vessel, murdered a passenger named Hewell, who owned some of the negroes, wounded the captain dangerously, and the first mate and two of the crew severely. The slaves consequently obtained complete possession of the vessel, when, under their direction, it was taken into the port of Nassau, in the island of New-Providence. There, at the request of the American consul in the place, the governor ordered a guard on board the Creole, with a view to prevent the escape of any from on board, until an examination could be had; on examination, nineteen of the slaves were identified as having participated in the mutiny and murder. These were placed in confinement for another investigation of the case; but the government refused to accede to the demand of the American consul that they should be sent back to America for trial. The remainder of the slaves, in number 114, were set at liberty, on the ground that they became free in landing on British territory.

The affair of the Amistad, as we have said, which had occurred but a short time previous to this, was considered so nearly identical with it, as to afford the English a tolerable excuse for following the example set them on that occasion.

Congress adjourned, after a laborious session, in which were passed ninety-five public acts, thirteen joint resolutions, and one hundred and eighty-nine private bills. Two other public bills were passed which were defeated by the veto of the President, and two more were defeated by not receiving the executive approval before the close of the session.

The introduction of the Croton river into New-York took place in June, and the event was very justly celebrated with public rejoicings. It may not be generally known that this stupendous work surpasses in magnificence one of the proudest boasts of ancient Rome. None of the hydraulic structures of that city, in spite of the legions of slaves she had at command, equal in magnitude of design, perfection of detail, and prospective benefits, this great accomplishment of a single city of the American republic. The entire length of the aqueduct is forty and a half miles. The work commences at the village of Croton, about five miles above the mouth of the river. Here is the first reservoir, which is formed by a dam

forcing the river back several miles, covering 600 acres, and computed to contain not less than 100,000,000 of gallons for each foot in depth from the surface. The uniform descent of the aqueduct from commencement, is about fourteen inches to the mile; consequently extensive excavations or tunnels passing through hills or heavy embankments, with culverts in crossing valleys, were required. Several of the tunnels are cut through solid rock, at an enormous expense; the longest is near the village of Manhattanville, and is 1,215 feet in length. Sleepy Hollow, well known to readers of imaginative lore, is spanned by a series of graceful arches.

The main line of the aqueduct is constructed as follows: the bottom is an inverted arch, the roof a semi-circle; the dimensions six feet at bottom, seven feet at top, and from eight to ten feet in height. The foundation is of stone, well laid, and the interstices filled with rubble; over this a bed of concrete composed of cement, broken stone and gravel, well combined; the side walls are thirty-nine inches thick at bottom, and twenty-seven inches at top; the arches both of brick. In crossing Harlem river the aqueduct encounters its most formidable impediment. Owing to the great depression of the stream below the grade line, and the peculiar inclination of its banks, the length of the aqueduct bridge will be 1,420 feet. Its width will be eighteen feet inside the parapet walls, and twenty-seven feet between the outer edges of the coping; it will be supported by sixteen piers, twenty by forty feet at base, and eighty-four feet in height, to the spring of the arch, diminishing as they rise, with a span of eighty feet. This bridge is intended for the support of iron pipes, which will be laid down, in the first instance, between two and three feet in diameter; but the work will be so arranged as to admit the introduction of two four feet pipes at any time hereafter, whose capacity will be equal to that of the grand trunk. A number of formidable ravines shortly after present themselves, but are all crossed handsomely, the water being conducted by means of inverted syphons. Ninety-sixth street being one hundred feet wide, has two arches of twenty-seven feet span, for the carriage-way, and one arch of fourteen feet span, on each side, for the sidewalks. The other streets being but sixty feet in width, will each have an arch of thirty feet span for the carriage-way, and one on each side of ten feet. The breadth over the arches to be twenty-four feet.

The next important work is the receiving reservoir, thirty-eight miles by the line of the aqueduct from its northern terminus. It covers thirty-five acres of ground, and is divided into two sections; the north section to have twenty feet of water when full, the south twenty-five feet; and the whole reservoir containing 160,000,000 gallons. From this reservoir the water will be conveyed through the Fifth Avenue to the distributing basin, in Forty-second street; this covers about five acres and holds 20,000,000 of gallons. This distributing reservoir is also a work of great magnitude and expense, and calculated to endure as long as the hills. It is in the Egyptian style of architecture, and employed four hundred men four years in its construction. The perfection of the work is such that a single man has complete control of the immense quantity of water used to supply the city. The original estimate of expense for the entire work, was $4,718,197; but before it is entirely finished, it is now supposed the amount will not fall far short of $12,000,000. At intervals of a mile, ventilators are constructed, in the form of towers, composed of white marble; these may be seen, glistening in the sunlight, by passengers along the course of the Hudson.

It is with pleasure we now make mention of an act of international courtesy which reflects high credit upon the government of Queen Victoria. Her majesty caused to be forwarded, through her minister at Washington, to the American secretary of state, *six* valuable *gold medals*, with appropriate emblems, to be disposed as follows:

1. For Captain Depeyster, of the packet-ship "Sheridan," of New-York, for saving the crew of the British barque "Zephyr," of Newcastle, in November, 1840.

2. For Captain Wotton, of the packet-ship "Rhone," of New-York, for saving the crew of the British barque "Belinda," of Troon, D. Mac Nichol, master.

3. For Captain Cropper, of the packet-ship "Columbus," of New-York, for saving the lives of the master and crew of the vessel "Leonidas," of Belfast, in November, 1840.

4. For Captain Thompson, of the packet-ship "Stephen Whitney," of New-York, for saving the master and crew of the schooner "Dispatch" of St. John's, Newfoundland, in November, 1840.

5. For Captain Palmer, of the packet-ship "Garrick," of New-York, for saving the lives of the master, mate, and crew of the brig "Eugenia" of St. John's, New-Brunswick, in December, 1840.

6. For Captain Stoddart, of the packet-ship "Ville de Lyon," of New-York, for saving the lives of the master and crew of the British brig "Brittania," in November, 1840.

Towards the close of the last year, the government of Texas, instead of wisely husbanding its resources, was so extremely inconsiderate as to authorize the famous Santa Fe expedition. This was an attempt by an armed force to capture the Mexican city and province of that name, which lies remote from assistance, at the foot of the Rocky Mountains. The pretence set up for this, was a necessity of retaliation for the injustice on the part of Mexico of refusing to recognize the independence of the Texians. The force consisted of some three or four hundred men, and was divided into three divisions, the principal command being in the hands of a General McLeod. The journey, from the starting point of the invaders, was not adequately provided for, either in the way of provisions or anything else; consequently, by the time half the long distance was passed over, the men began to suffer, and their distresses increased up to the time of their surrender to the Mexican authorities. But now, from having subsisted for weeks upon snakes and lizards, they sunk to a state, if possible, more abject. In defiance of all the principles of justice, and in the most gross violation of their solemnly pledged word that the captives should be humanely treated, the Mexican authorities stripped their prisoners of everything—arms, blankets, and clothing—chained them in pairs, barefooted, and drove them off a distance of two thousand miles to the city of Mexico. Thirty-five famished and died. Four were wantonly shot by the guard, for their inability or refusal to keep up with the main body. The *ears* of those who thus perished were cut off and preserved, to be delivered to the commanding officer of the barbarians, as evidence that their prisoners had not escaped.

There accompanied this expedition, in the capacity of "travellers, men of letters, or invalids," several Americans, some of whom bore passports from the Mexican consul at New-Orleans, and other evidences of their being non-belligerent citizens. George W. Kendall, a Mr. Falconer, and a son of General Combs, of Kentucky, were of this class. These, and other men, who had just claims to special consideration, were deprived of their papers and means of protection, and maltreated in common with the rest. In consequence of this, protests were entered by several of the foreign ministers at Mexico; and a very lengthy correspondence was had between the Mexican authorities and different branches of other governments.

On the 22d of June, the president of the United States communicated to the Senate, in compliance with a resolution of that body, the correspondence which had recently taken place between the American minister in Mexico and the government of that country, together with the instruc-

tions of the government to the minister. The correspondence was of great length; it comprised the letter of Mr. Webster, secretary of state, to Mr. Ellis, late minister in Mexico, requesting him to interfere in favour of Mr. Franklin Combs, and other letters requesting the interposition of Mr. Ellis in behalf of other individuals, who were involved in the disasters of the Santa Fe expedition. The view taken by the secretary of state of these cases, is fully explained in a letter of a subsequent date, addressed by him to Mr. Waddy Thompson, the new minister to Mexico.

In this letter, dated April 5, 1842, Mr. Webster draws a distinction between the cases of those who, like Mr. Kendall, joined the expedition for objects entirely distinct from a hostile invasion of Mexico, and those who were parties to the military expedition, and states the grounds on which persons connected with the expedition under certain circumstances are entitled to be treated as non-combatants. The following is the concluding portion of the letter, in which the minister is instructed what course to adopt in relation to the prisoners whose cases were specially stated. After alluding to the cruelties which are alledged to have been inflicted on the prisoners, the secretary proceeds as follows:

"The government of the United States has no inclination to interfere in the war between Mexico and Texas for the benefit or protection of individuals, any further than its clear duties require. But if citizens of the United States who have not renounced, nor intended to renounce, their allegiance to their own government, nor have entered into the military service of any other government, have, nevertheless, been found so connected with armed enemies of Mexico, as that they may be lawfully captured and detained as prisoners of war, it is still the duty of this government to take so far a concern in their welfare as to see that, as prisoners of war, they are treated according to the usages of modern times and civilized states. Indeed, although the rights or the safety of none of their own citizens were concerned, yet, if in a war waged between two neighbouring states, the killing, enslaving, or cruelly treating of prisoners should be indulged, the United States would feel it to be their duty, as well as their right, to remonstrate and to interfere against such a departure from the principles of humanity and civilization. These principles are common principles, essential alike to the welfare of all nations, and, in the preservation of which all nations have, therefore, rights and interests. But their duty to interfere becomes imperative in cases affecting their own citizens. It is, therefore, that the government of the United States protests against the hardships and cruelties to which the Santa Fe prisoners have been subjected. It protests against this treatment in the name of humanity and the law of nations—in the name of all Christian states—in the name of civilization and the spirit of the age—in the name of all republics—in the name of liberty herself, enfeebled and dishonoured by all cruelty, and all excess—in the name of, and for the honour of, this whole hemisphere. It protests, emphatically and earnestly, against practices belonging only to barbarous people in barbarous times.

"By the well-established rules of national law, prisoners of war are not to be treated harshly unless personally guilty towards him who has them in his power, for he should remember that they are men and unfortunate. When an enemy is conquered and submits, a great soul forgets all resentment and is entirely filled with compassion for him. This is the humane language of the law of nations; and this is the sentiment of high honour among men. The law of war forbids the wounding, killing, impressment into the troops of the country, or the enslaving or otherwise maltreating of *prisoners of war*, unless they have been guilty of some grave crime; and from the obligation of this law no civilized nation can discharge itself. Every nation on being received at her own request into the circle of civilized governments, must understand that she not only attains rights of

sovereignty and the dignity of national character, but that she binds herself also to the strict and faithful observance of all those principles, laws and usages which have obtained currency among civilized states, and which have for their object the mitigation of the miseries of war. No community can be allowed to enjoy the benefit of national character in modern times without submitting to all the duties which that character imposes. A Christian people, who exercise sovereign power, who make treaties, maintain diplomatic relations with other states, and who should yet refuse to conduct its military operations according to the usages universally observed by such states, would present a character singularly inconsistent and anomalous. This government will not hastily suppose that the Mexican republic will assume such a character. There is yet another very important element arising out of the facts of this case.

"It is asserted and believed that the surrender of some of the persons connected with the expedition was made upon specific terms, which were immediately violated by the local Mexican authorities. If there is one rule of the law of war more clear and peremptory than another, it is, that compacts between enemies, such as truces and capitulations, should be faithfully adhered to; and their non-observance is denounced as being manifestly at variance with the true interest and duty, not only of the immediate parties, but of all mankind. Consequently, if the surrender of the expedition, or any part of it, was conditional, the benefit of those conditions must be insisted upon in favour of the captives. According to the statement of Messrs. Falconer and Van Ness, Mr. Kendall proceeded two hundred miles in advance of the main body, and was taken with his companions while they were displaying a flag of truce; and the persons who took them gave assurances that they should not be held as prisoners of war. Here, then, was a special immunity promised, but afterwards notoriously withheld, as we are bound to believe, in the present state of our information upon the subject. If, therefore, this government were not entitled to demand the release of Mr. Kendall on the ground of his having been a non-combatant and a neutral, it might require the government of Mexico to take care that the stipulations of its authorized agents to that effect be scrupulously fulfilled, and that on this account, those to whom the promise was made should be immediately released, according to that promise.

"In conclusion, I am directed by the president of the United States now to instruct you that, on the receipt of this dispatch, you inquire carefully and minutely into the circumstances of those persons who, having been taken near Santa Fe, and having claimed the interposition of this government, are still held as prisoners in Mexico, and you will then demand of the Mexican government the release of such of them as appear to have been innocent traders, travellers, invalids, men of letters, or for any other reasons justly esteemed non-combatants, being citizens of the United States. To this end it may be proper to direct the consul to proceed to the places where any of them may be confined, and to take their statements under oath, as also the statements of other persons to whom they may respectively refer. If the Mexican government deny facts upon which any of the persons claim their release, and desire time for further investigation of their respective cases, or any of them, proper and suitable time must be allowed; but if any of the persons described in the next preceding paragraph, and for whose relief you shall have made a demand, shall still be detained for the purpose of further inquiry or otherwise, you will then explicitly demand of the Mexican government, that they be treated thenceforward with all the lenity which, in the most favourable cases, belongs to the rights of prisoners of war, that they be not confined in loathsome dungeons, with malefactors and persons diseased, that they be not chained, or subjected to ignominy, or to any particular rigor in their

detention; that they be not obliged to labour on the public works, or put to any other hardship. You will state to the Mexican government that the government of the United States entertains a conviction that these persons ought to be set at liberty without delay; that it will feel great dissatisfaction if it shall learn that those whose cases have been already made the subject of an express demand, are still suffering," &c., &c.

After much delay, the prisoners named were set at liberty. Santa Anna, by an act of great clemency, shortly after, on the solemnization of his birth-day, released *all* of the Santa Fe prisoners. At that time there were fifty at the castle of Perote; one hundred and nineteen in the city of Mexico; and the remainder at Jalapa.

The United States' South Sea Exploring Expedition returned home in June and July of this year, having been absent since the 18th of August, 1838—nearly four years. Since leaving the United States, the combined squadron had navigated about four hundred thousand miles. The Vincennes, the vessel of Captain Wilkes, sailed round the world, altogether a distance of seventy-one thousand miles, and returned in comparatively good order, without having met with any material accident. The brig Porpoise, Commander Ringgold, arrived in New-York on the 2d of July, having been absent three years and eleven months, and making according to log, ninety-five thousand miles. The ship Peacock was wrecked at the mouth of Columbia river, by running upon a shoal; but, happily, without a loss of life. She had sailed, prior to her destruction, sixty-two thousand miles, and was still in excellent order. Captain Hudson was the last man to leave his sinking ship, having taken from her such valuables as could be rescued hastily by means of such boats as could be got alongside. The shipwrecked crew received much attention from the gentlemanly British commander at Fort George, formerly Astoria, about twelve miles above the mouth of the river, and they were kindly cared for until the arrival of other vessels of the squadron to their relief. The brig Oregon, which was substituted for the Peacock after this loss, arrived in Boston on the 1st of July, in command of Lieutenant Carr. The ship Clarendon, by way of Canton, arrived in New-York in June. The Flying-Fish, tender to the Vincennes, previous to her being sold at Singapore as unseaworthy, had made seventy-eight thousand six hundred and forty-eight miles.

The expedition thoroughly executed every part of the duties confided to it by the government. A very large number of ports, harbours, islands, reefs and shoals, were visited, examined and surveyed. Many charts of the South seas having been found erroneous, were carefully corrected. Several of the principal groups of islands in the Pacific Ocean were visited for the first time by the government vessels of this nation, and friendly relations established with the chiefs and natives of them. The discoveries in the Antarctic Ocean—observations for fixing the southern magnetic pole, &c., &c., *preceded* those of the French and English expeditions.

On one of the islands visited, the natives offered them worship, evidently believing them to have descended from the sun. On Mouna Loa, in the island of Hawaii, experiments were made with the pendulum at a height of fourteen thousand feet above the level of the sea. Topographical surveys were also made of some of the most extensive craters. On one occasion, while examining a group of the Fejee islands, the boats' crews were attacked, and two of their officers were killed—but no similar occurrence took place afterwards. A friendly Fejee chief, Vendovi, was brought to the United States, but he died shortly after his arrival. The Sooloo Sea was also explored, and a new and feasible route discovered for passing n that direction to China, thus guarding against the northeast monsoon.

On one of the islands, where they obtained specimens of minerals imbedded in igneous rock, there was no appearance of vegetation whatever; yet it was so densely covered with penguins, which stoutly resisted their landing, that it was with difficulty they could force their way through them.

The expedition also, during its absence, examined and surveyed a large portion of the Oregon territory, formerly but little known. The Columbia river was ascended one hundred and twenty miles to the cascades and falls. The philologist of the expedition, Mr. Hale, was left there for the purpose of prosecuting his inquiries at leisure, and returning by land. All the harbours of Oregon were visited and surveyed. A new and complete map of the country was prepared, embracing its rivers, sounds, coast, forts, &c., which will furnish the government with a mass of valuable information relative to its formerly but little known possessions on the northwest coast, and in the whole of that interesting region. An examination was also made of a part of Upper California, the Sacramento river, bay of San Francisco, with their various tributaries, &c., &c.

Those of the officers who were lost, were Lieutenant Underwood and Midshipman Henry, killed by savages at the Island of Mololo, one of the Fejee group, while bravely defending their men. Midshipmen Reid and Bacon, together with some thirteen others, in the Sea Gull, were probably capsized by a gale and lost, while attempting to round Cape Horn. A chaste obelisk in memory of these early dead, was erected by their companions, in Mount Auburn cemetery.

There died, in Washington, this year, Mrs. Letitia Tyler, wife of the president; also, Hon. Samuel L. Southard, of New-Jersey; also, Hon. J. Lawrence and D. Dimock, of Pa.; also, Senator Dixon, of R. I.; and Hon. L. Williams, of N. C., "the father of the House." In Baltimore, by explosion of the Medora, twenty-six persons were killed, and thirty-eight wounded. Died, in Maryland, Ex-governor Veazey. In New-Jersey, Gen. Rossel. In Vermont, Rev. Dr. Channing, of Boston. In Massachusetts, Maj. Lomax, U. S. A. At Groton, Ct., Capt. Avery, an officer under Col. Ledyard at the storming of Fort Griswold by the British. In New-London, Gen'l. Isham. At Fort Sullivan, S. C., Major Kirby. In Kentucky, Ex-governor Desha. In Georgia, Hon. W. R. Habersham. In Missouri, Gen. Atkinson; also, Major Floyd; also, Judge Lucas. At New-Orleans, l'Abbe Moni. In the Illinois house of assembly, Hon. Mr. Arndt, being shot in an altercation. In Virginia, Hon. W. S. Hastings, of Mass. At Pittsburgh, Capt. Butler, U. S. A. In Ohio, Judge Jolly, one of Morgan's riflemen in the revolution. At Philadelphia, Condy Raguet, formerly American chargé at Brazil. In New-York, Col. Cummings, U. S. A.; also, æ 70, Mrs. Blennerhasset, a name rendered enduring by the evil deeds of Burr and eloquence of Wirt. In Florida, Major Wilcox, U. S. A. In the Cherokee nation, Capt. Simonton, U. S. dragoons. In Texas, Chief-justice Moreland. In France, Gen. Fenwick, U. S. A.; also, the famous surgeon Baron Larrey, æ 76; also, Admiral Baudin; also, the count de Las Cases, companion of Napoleon in banishment. At St. Petersburgh, Sir Robert Ker Porter, historical painter. In Smyrna, Capt. Voorhees, U. S. N. In Italy, M. de Sismondi, the historian; also, Capt. Hamilton, author of "Travels in America." In Ireland, John Banim, novelist; also, Rev. Henry Maturin, author of "Bertram." In London, Gen. Shrapnell, inventor of the "shells" which bear his name; also, Ducrow, the equestrian. In France, the duke of Orleans, eldest son of Louis Philippe, being thrown from his barouche. In London, Sir Charles Bell, eminent as a surgeon; also, Viscount Coke, writer of jurisprudence. In Edinburgh, James Grahame, author of a "History of America." In London, John Harrison, grandson of the discoverer of the longitude, for which he was voted by government £20,000.

A. D. 1843.—On the reassembling of Congress, the principal subject of attention was still the establishment of an exchequer. Nothing that Congress could offer having found favour in the eyes of the president, it now became his turn to submit a plan. The Secretary of the Treasury accordingly laid before the House his project, approved by the heads of government—when it was rejected, by the strong vote of one hundred and ninety-three to eighteen. A treaty was negotiated between the executive authorities of the United States and certain Texian commissioners for the annexation of Texas—but this also was rejected by the Senate.

In July several changes occurred in the cabinet of the president, which was thus remodelled: Mr. A. P. Upshur, of Va., was made Secretary of State; John C. Spencer, of N. Y., Secretary of the Treasury; J. M. Porter, of Pa., Secretary of War; T. W. Gilmer, of Va., Secretary of the Navy; C. A. Wickliffe, of Ky., Post-master General; J. Nelson, of Md., Attorney General.

Congress, before the close of its session, made two appropriations, which, for the honour of that body, deserve to be recorded. First, $30,000 for the purpose of establishing a line of telegraphs to Baltimore, under the direction of Professor Morse. This opened a new field of enterprize to the discerning men of the age, and we now see how incalculably advantageous the results of the system are not merely to this nation but to the race at large. Secondly, $40,000 to establish a special embassage to the Celestial Empire. Former remissness in regard to the trade of that region, had proved highly injurious to the true interests and dignity of the republic.

A melancholy event occurred in the American navy at the end of the last year; an incident without parallel, and one calculated to startle the sensibilities of the whole people. A son of the honourable Secretary of War was in the month of December hanged at the yard-arm of a vessel on board which he was a midshipman, for the alleged crime of a mutinous and piratical conspiracy. The name of the vessel was the Somers, a ten gun brig under the command of Lieutenant A. Slidell Mackenzie, and the crew consisted of a complement of fifteen petty officers and seamen with some seventy-odd naval apprentices. The vessel was new, and had been ordered to the coast of Africa on a trial cruize, to touch at Monrovia and return by the way of St. Thomas—and it was the design of the mutineers to seize her upon leaving the latter point, murder the officers, and at once supplant the national colours with a flag bearing the skull and cross-bones. Thirteen of the crew, it was said, had taken an oath of conspiracy, and were determined to act upon the ground that "dead men tell no tales"—slaying all they might capture, save women, whom they were to preserve for themselves.

The plot was nearly ripe for execution, when the purser's steward, to whom the horrid design had been partly revealed, betrayed it. Midshipman Philip Spencer, a youth of nineteen, was represented as the originator and head of the infernal scheme; and upon being confronted with his accuser, he admitted the charge brought against him, but asserted that what he had said was "all in a joke." Upon a further inquiry into the strange affair, however, a paper written in cypher was found, separating the crew—and other evidences that it was like to have proved a matter much too solemn for a joke. Other parties implicated were examined rigorously, and sufficient cause found to warrant the detention in double irons of three persons, namely, a midshipman and two sailors, the one holding the authoritative position of master-at-arms, and the other master of the top. After this, a spirit of insubordination seeming to be manifested in the crew, upon deliberation with the balance of his officers, the commander of the vessel determined upon the extremity of executing the supposed ringleaders of the mutiny in his ship. After this, it was said,

the men returned to their duty with accustomed alacrity. Commander Mackenzie, upon his arrival in New-York, was tried by a court-martial, at much length, for this act of speedy retribution, and was finally exonerated from all blame.

The Rhode-Island "rebellion," so called, now comes to be considered. It appears, that some time previous to this, a convention of inhabitants in that state met and framed a new constitution, materially different from the one under which the government of the state was then administered. The principal grievance complained of was the extremely limited and arbitrary nature of the laws relative to the right of suffrage—from which circumstance the favourers of the new constitution were denominated "free suffrage" men, while their opponents assumed the name of the "law and order" party. At the election for state officers in 1842, two governors and two sets of legislative officers were voted for and were declared duly elected under the two opposing constitutions. Thomas W. Dorr was pronounced governor by the revolutionists, while Samuel W. King was proclaimed the same by the regular authorities under the old and unrepealed charter of King Charles. Both parties prepared to maintain their claims by force of arms, and the entire state became a scene of confusion and uproar.

In this exigency, the president of the Union was appealed to, and he decided that the "law and order" men were right. The Dorrites were declared traitors, inasmuch as their initiatory measures had been unauthorized, and all their primary assemblies informal and consequently illegal. Both parties now began to arm themselves, and a civil war seemed inevitable. The legally-constituted authorities called for aid from the general government, and troops were ordered to their assistance. The new-constitutionists made an attempt on the state arsenal, but were beaten off; whereupon Dorr appealed for assistance to the friends of liberty everywhere, and many marched to join his standard. Shortly after, he took possession of a hill at a place called *Chepachet*, where he mounted five pieces of cannon, and mustered about him some seven hundred men. Thereupon, martial law was proclaimed in the state by the legal government, and a force of three thousand militia under General M'Neil was ordered to "disperse the rebels." This was done; on the approach of the regulars, Dorr and his party fled, without firing a gun; only one man was killed during the whole course of the disturbance.

After two years' absence from the state, Mr. Dorr returned to Rhode Island, and was there tried and convicted of treason, and sentenced to the state's prison for life. This sentence, however, the governor of the state signified his readiness to revoke whenever the pseudo-governor should acknowledge his allegiance to the existing government—which now rests upon a new constitution, legally formed and adopted by the people of the state since the commencement of difficulties there, and which makes the right of suffrage as extensive as in that constitution which was preferred by the insurgents, except that two years' residence in the state is required instead of one. Mr. Dorr at first stoutly refused to do anything of the kind, and was placed in durance: but his health giving way, he was finally induced to subscribe to the oath, and was set at liberty.

Much has been said of American "repudiation." Those delinquent states who from extravagance or mismanagement of some sort, found themselves unable to pay the interest on their bonds, have certainly suffered much, and justly, from the storms of objurgation and reproach which have been poured down like thick hail upon their exposed heads. A perusal of the annexed portion of a letter penned by a great statesman of this nation, will, however, throw some small glimmering of light upon the dark subject. If, indeed, as we may be allowed to hope, the disabilities of the repudiators have been forced upon them by the unavoidable exigencies of

the times, there is yet fair reason to presume that the laggards will, ere long, redeem their pledges, and achieve for themselves a more honourable distinction.

Mr. Everett, American minister in London, in the month of March, addressed a letter to the holders of certain American state stocks, who had presented a memorial to him on the subject. After the usual preliminary remarks, he continues: "I concur with you fully in protesting against the doctrine that a state which has pledged its faith and resources can release itself from the obligation, however burdensome, in any way but that of honourable payment. Fatal delusions, in times of great distress, occasionally come over the minds of communities as well as individuals; but I rejoice in the belief that the number is exceedingly small of those who have, in any form, advanced the idea of what has been called repudiation." I am convinced that those states which unhappily have failed to make provision for the interest due on their bonds have done so under the heavy pressure of adverse circumstances, and not with the purpose of giving legislative sanction to a doctrine so pernicious, immoral, and unworthy.

"The memorialists are pleased to give me credit for sympathy with their sufferings. There is, perhaps, no person, not himself directly a sufferer, who has had so much reason as myself to feel deeply all the evil effects—the sacrifice not merely of material prosperity, but what is of infinitely greater consequence, of public honour—resulting from this disastrous failure. The reproach which it has brought on the American name, has been the only circumstance which has prevented a residence in the land of my fathers from being a source of unmingled satisfaction to me.

"The position, gentlemen, of some, at least, of the indebted states, is as singular as it is deplorable. They have involved themselves most unadvisedly, in engagements which would be onerous to much larger and richer communities; and they yet possess, under an almost hopeless present embarrassment, the undoubted means of eventual recovery. I will take the state of Illinois, for instance, and what I say of that state will hold good of the others, making allowance for difference of local circumstances. The state of Illinois, undertook a few years since the construction of a ship canal of about 100 miles in length, to unite the waters of Lake Michigan with those of the Illinois river; and more recently projected and commenced the execution of 1,300 miles of railway. On these works she has borrowed and expended above £2,000,000; the works are incomplete and unproductive. The population of the state is that of a second sized English county, short of 500,000. It is what in good times would be considered an eminently prosperous population; but I am inclined to think, that if the English income-tax of the last year were, by the legislature of Illinois, laid on that state, more than one half the population possessing in the aggregate that proportion of the taxable property would in the present period of general distress, fall below the point of exemption, and that of the other half, a small number only would rise much above that point; and yet the undeveloped resources of Illinois are almost boundless. The state is larger than England and Wales. By the Mississippi it is connected with the Gulf of Mexico, by Lake Michigan with the St. Lawrence; and it has a most extensive internal navigation, by means of several noble rivers. The climate of the state is mild; it contains, I suppose, as large a body of land not merely cultivable, but highly fertile, as can be found lying together in the United States; it abounds in various kinds of mineral wealth; it is situated about in the centre of a horizontal field of bituminous coal, which Mr. Lyell pronounced the other day to be as large as Great Britain; and it is inhabited by an industrious, frugal, intelligent people, most rapidly increasing in numbers. That such a people will for any length of time submit to lie under the reproach and bear the loss incident to a total prostration of public credit, I can never believe.

"In addition to these public embarassments, private fortunes almost without number have been destroyed in the general wreck, of which the failure of the states, as cause or effect, is one of the principal elements. I doubt if, in the history of the world, in so short a period, such a transition has been made from a state of high prosperity to one of general distress, as in the United States within the last six years. And yet, gentlemen, the elasticity and power of recovery in the country are great beyond the conception of those who do not know it from personal observation. Even within the disastrous period to which I have alluded, a private commercial debt to this country, estimated at £25,000,000 sterling, has been paid by the American merchants, with as little loss to the creditor as would attend the collection of an equal amount of domestic debt in this or any other country.

"But I will not detain you by enlarging on these topics. The subject, I need not tell you, is one on which, in all respects, it is proper that I should speak with reserve. I think I shall have done my duty, if I have convinced you that I am keenly sensible of the sufferings of your constituents, and truly solicitous for their effectual relief; and that, amid all the uncertainties and delay which may attend the measures requisite for that purpose, I still feel confident that the time will come when every state in the Union will fulfil its engagements."

The Bunker Hill monument was in this year completed, and a magnificent celebration held to commemorate the event. The day chosen was the 17th of June, the anniversary of the battle; that day upon which the fathers of the country poured out their blood so like water, to redeem the parched land from destruction. Deputations from the seat of government, and various quarters of the Union, were there upon the occasion. The immense concourse formed in the city of Boston, Charlestown, Roxbury, and the surrounding towns, and marched to the eventful heights—not as did their ancestors, rudely clad and but half-armed, save with the panoply of virtue and stern patriotism—but now in all the gorgeous colours of a pageant. Upwards of six hundred banners were displayed, emblazoned with innumerable and appropriate devices; and for hours the swaying masses of men filled every avenue, thronging around the hill. One thousand ladies were seated upon ranges of settees conveniently disposed, tier above tier, around the speaker—reminding one of the picture of a Mohammedan paradise. Daniel Webster was the orator of the day, and by a series of brilliant efforts added freshness to his ever-glowing laurels.

The dimensions of the monument are as follows: thirty feet square at the base, and sixteen feet four and a half inches at the top, having a diminution of fourteen feet seven and a half inches above its base. The height, at the top of the apex, is two hundred and twenty-one feet. It is substantially built of hewn Quincy granite, and its entire cost was $119,800. The interior is circular, having a diameter of ten feet and seven inches at bottom, and six feet four inches at top, and is ascended by two hundred and ninety-four steps. The top is an elliptical chamber, seventeen feet high, eleven feet in diameter, with four windows two feet eight inches high, and two feet two inches in breadth—and presents one of the most splendid views in the United States.

To elevate the top stone of the monument to its position required no little skill and ingenuity—as it was a block of two and a half tons weight, four feet nine inches square at the base and three feet six inches in thickness through the centre. The height of the monument entire, as we have said, is two hundred and twenty-one feet, being an altitude some few feet greater than that of the Washington monument at Baltimore, including its statue of thirteen feet. The Groton monument, an imposing structure near New-London, is but one hundred and twenty-seven feet high. The monument on Bunker Hill, it is said, is higher than anything

of the kind at present erected in the country. The *New-York* Washington monument, however, is intended to be the highest in the world.

Estimate of the year's agricultural produce throughout the Union:

Bushels of Wheat,	120,000,000	Value to the grower,			$76,000,000
" Rye,	23,000,000	"	"	"	11,000,000
" Barley,	5,000,000	"	"	"	2,000.000
" Buckwheat,	9,000,000	"	"	"	3,000,000
" Corn,	500,000,000	"	"	"	189,000,000
" Potatoes,	135,000,000	"	"	"	33,000,000
" Oats,	150,000,000	"	"	"	33,000,000
Tons of Hay,	15,000,000	"	"	"	174,000,000
" Flax and Hemp,	158,569	"	"	"	19,028,370
Bales of Cotton,	2,500,000	"	"	"	56,000,000
Pounds of Tobacco,	250,000,000	"	"	"	12,000,000
" Rice,	111,000,000	"	"	"	3,000,000
" Sugar	142,000,000	"	"	"	7,000,000
" Silk Cocoons,	244,124	"	"	"	122,062
Gallons of Wine,	130,748	"	"	"	65,374
Produce of the Dairy, *lbs.*	272,000,000	"	"	"	34,000,000
" " Orchard, *bbls.*	7,000,000	"	"	"	6,000,000
Number of Cattle,	115,000,000	"	"	"	700,000,000
				Total,	$1,358,215,806

This estimate is based upon a "tabular view" by the commissioner of patents at Washington. The prices set down are those which prevail in the market, or such as are supposed to be a fair average.

The following are the characteristics of the states, in regard to the species of produce, at least for the year specified. New-York produces the most oats, viz., 24,907,553 bushels; also, the most barley, 1,802,982 bushels. Pennsylvania produces the most rye, viz., 9,429,637 bushels; also, the most buckwheat, 2,408,508 bushels. Ohio produces the most wheat, viz., 18,786,705 bushels. Tennessee the most Indian corn, viz., 67,838,477 bushels. New-York the most potatoes, viz., 26,553,612 bushels; also, the most hay, 4,295,536 tons. Kentucky produces the most flax and hemp, viz., 31,728 tons. Virginia produces the most tobacco, viz., 52,322,543 pounds. Georgia produces the most cotton, viz., 185,758,128 pounds. South-Carolina produces the most rice, viz., 66,892,807 pounds. Connecticut raises the most silk, viz., 140,971 pounds. Louisiana the most sugar, viz., 37,173,590 pounds. North-Carolina the most wine, viz., 17,347 gallons.

The deaths in the course of the year, of prominent persons, were as follows: In Washington, Hon. Mr. Burnell, of Mass. In Boston, Hugh S. Legare, of S. C.; also Judge Simmons. At New-Haven, Ct., æ 85, Noah Webster, L. L. D. In New-York, Ex-governor Mason, of Michigan; also, Judge Smith Thompson. Near New-York, General Armstrong, æ 85, Secretary of War in 1813. At Troy, N. Y., Commodore Dallas, U. S. N. At Cambridge, Mass., Washington Allston, artist. In Portland, Me., General Eustis, U. S. A.; also, Senator Holmes. In New-Jersey, Judge Halsey. In New-York, Judge Elmendorf; also, Peter Lorillard, by his own industry a *millionaire*. In Philadelphia, Jacob Ridgeway, the same. In Indiana, Bishop Roberts. In Boston, Judge Thatcher. At Cincinnati, Senator M'Roberts, of Ill. At St. Genevieve, Mo., Senator Linn. In Virginia, General Porterfield. At Norwich, Ct., æ 89, Uncas, the last of the Mohegans. At Kingston, U. C., Sir Charles Bagot, being the third Governor-general of the Canadas dying within three years. In London, Robert Southey, poet laureat; also, Richard Arkwright, whose father invented the spinning machine. In Paris, Dr. Hahnemann, founder of homœpathy. At Constantinople, Commodore Porter. At Cape Palmas, Africa, Rev. L. B. Minor, missionary.

A. D. 1844—The great subject of attention with Congress, was the expediency of annexing Texas. In a few brief sentences, we give here the substance of a score of interminable speeches, for as well as against the proposed annexation. The favourers of the scheme asserted, on the one hand, that the country of Texas was of incalculable importance to the United States, in an agricultural and commercial point of view: That to a soil of inexhaustible fertility it united a genial and healthy climate, and was destined, at a day not far distant, to make large contributions to the commerce of the world: That the magnitude of its productions under the fostering care of the American government, would give a new impulse to the commercial interests of the whole country, while the addition made to the boundary of the home market thus secured to the mining, manufacturing, and mechanical skill and industry of the Eastern and Middle States, would be of a character the most commanding and important: That Texas being adapted to the culture of cotton, sugar, and rice, and devoting most of her energies to the raising of those productions, would open an extensive market to the Western States, in the important articles of beef, pork, horses, mules, &c., as well as in bread stuffs: That Texas had been chiefly settled by persons from the United States, who carried with them the laws, customs, and political and domestic institutions of their native land; and being thus indoctrinated in all the principles of civil liberty, would bring along with them devotion to the Union, and a firm and inflexible resolution to assist in maintaining the public liberty unimpaired: That justice required that the people of Texas should be shielded by some superior power, from the inhuman description of warfare which was carried on against them by Mexico: That if the wishes of Texas to enter the Union were now defeated by the United States, she would be driven to seek the protection of some other nation, which would prove greatly injurious to the interests of the whole Union; for the government would be sure to suffer seriously in its revenue by the introduction of a system of smuggling upon an extensive scale, which an army of custom-house officers could not prevent, and which would operate to affect injuriously the interests of all the industrial classes of the country; and that by a constant collision of the inhabitants, the peace of the nation would be continually violated.

Those who were opposed to the admission of Texas into the Union, asserted that the annexation of that country to the United States without the concurrence of the nation that claimed it by virtue of the treaty of 1819, whereby the United States alienated its title to Texas by solemn compacts, would be a violation of national faith and honour: That in case the treaty should become ratified, a war with Mexico would be the inevitable consequence; as that nation had never acknowledged the independence of Texas, but claimed the right of jurisdiction over it: That the admittance of Texas under such circumstances would place a weapon in the hands of those who look upon us and our institutions with distrustful and envious eyes, that would do us more real, lasting injury, as a nation, than the acquisition of such a territory, valuable though it might be, could possibly repair: That while the lust for power, with fraud and violence in its train, had led other governments to aggressions and conquests, our movements in these respects had always been regulated by reason and justice; but that the annexation of Texas, under existing circumstances, would be a violation of those principles upon which we can now look back with feelings of honest pride and satisfaction: That the strong sectional feeling which now exists between the North and South would be so augmented by the annexation, as to lead possibly to the dissolution of the Union.

One of the most appalling disasters of which we have any account, occurred in the month of February, at Washington, on board the steam-

frigate Princeton. A select party of between 300 and 400 ladies and gentlemen, including the president, heads of departments, foreign ministers, members of congress, &c., had been invited by the commander of the vessel, Captain R. F. Stockton, to make an excursion down the river. In addition to the elegance of the ship, a new and tremendous apparatus for war was to be exhibited to the company. An enormous gun, denominated the Peace-maker, which was formed of wrought iron, for safety, instead of cast, was considered so perfect an engine of destruction as to be worthy of attention. Its weight was ten tons; it was fifteen feet in length, and threw a ball weighing two hundred and twenty-five pounds; yet the immense missile was projected a distance of four miles with the same precision that a rifle ball could be sent eighty paces.

During the passage down towards Mount Vernon the gun was fired three times, to the admiration of such connoiseurs in the art of gunnery as were on board; but in returning, by desire of the Secretary of the Navy, and others, Captain Stockton consented to increase the charge, in firing a final salute. As they were gathered about the gun to witness the effect, it burst, scattering death and desolation around. Mr. Upshur, Secretary of State—Mr. Gilmer, so recently placed at the head of the navy—Commodore Kennon, one of its most gallant officers—Virgil Maxcy, Esq., lately returned from a diplomatic residence abroad—and Hon. Mr. Gardiner, of New-York, were among the slain. Besides these, seventeen seamen were wounded, some of them badly. Captain Stockton, who fired the gun, had the hair of his head and face burned off, and was thrown prostrate, with many others, stunned by the explosion. The lower part of the piece, from the trunnions to the breech, was blown off, being subdivided in two large sections and fifteen or twenty small pieces. The only consolation afforded in this calamity, is that none of the ladies were injured, although a number were upon deck at the time.

A disgraceful disturbance in the vicinity of Nauvoo, Illinois, this year resulted in the death of the "prophet" of the Mormons, Mr. Jos. Smith, together with his brother, Hyrum Smith. These deluded people had previously, for a number of years, vexed with their mummeries and fanaticism the well-intentioned citizens of the west; but that they might have been in some instances imposed upon, and ought not to have been so summarily slain, is doubtless true. A brief glance at the rise and progress of the deception, will afford a clue to the causes superinducing that bitter enmity which has always surrounded the "holy city" of the deceived or deceivers.

Smith, the "prophet," was a native of Vermont, but in early life removed, with his parents, to the western part of New-York. The family was remarkable for idleness, ignorance, and superstition. Joseph and his father were pious believers in witches, dreams, and digging for money; but their views in regard to property tenure, and the rights of others, were extremely loose and disjointed. Failing to discover hidden treasure in the earth, or to acquire the means of subsistence from supernatural revelations, the family became separated, and the incipient prophet hired himself out as a labourer near Palmyra. There he became acquainted with a thrifty farmer by the name of Harris, whose credulity was such that he allowed himself to become security for the publication of the famous "Book of Mormon," the foundation of the new faith.

This book is its own condemnation. It is a duodecimo volume, containing 590 pages; and is without doubt one of the weakest productions ever attempted to be palmed off as a divine revelation. It is mostly a blind mass of words, interwoven with scriptural language and quotations, without any leading plan or design. It is in fact such a production as might be expected from a person of Smith's abilities and turn of mind. The following is a verbatim of the title-page:

"THE BOOK OF MORMON: AN ACCOUNT WRITTEN BY THE HAND OF MORMON, UPON PLATES TAKEN FROM THE PLATES OF NEPHI.

"Wherefore it is an abridgment of the record of the people of Nephi, and also of the Lamanites; written to the Lamanites, which are a remnant of the House of Israel, and also to the Jew and Gentile, written by way of commandment, and also by the Spirit of Prophecy and Revelation. Written and sealed up and hid up to the Lord that they may not be destroyed, to come forth by the gift and power of God unto the interpretation thereof, sealed by the hand of Moroni, and hid up unto the Lord to come forth in due time by the way of the Gentile: the interpretation thereof by the gift of God, an abridgment taken from the book of Ether. Also, which is a Record of the People of Jared, which were scattered at the time the Lord confounded the language of the people when they were building a tower to get to Heaven, which is to show unto the remnant of the House of Israel how great things the Lord hath done unto their fathers, and that they may know the covenants of the Lord, and that they are not cast off forever; and also to the convincing of the Jew and Gentile, that JESUS is the CHRIST, the ETERNAL GOD, manifesting himself unto all nations. And now if there are faults it be the mistake of men, wherefore condemn not the things of God that ye may be found spotless at the judgment seat of Christ.

"By Joseph Smith, junior, Author and Proprietor, Palmyra. Printed by E. B. Grandin, for the author, 1830."

This wonderful revelation purported to have been translated from certain brass plates, which were covered with mysterious characters, and were said to have been dug out of a hill situated "in the township of Manchester, Ontario county, New-York." Mr. Smith was enabled to do the translating by means of a peculiar kind of spectacles, which he found with the plates. On the last page of the marvellous volume as translated, was published "the testimony of eight witnesses," of which the following is a correct transcript:

"Be it known unto all nations, kindred, tongues, and people, unto whom this book shall come, that Joseph Smith, junior, the Author and Proprietor of this work, hath showed unto us the plates of which hath been spoken, which have the appearance of gold; and as many of the leaves as the said Smith has translated we did handle with our hands, and we also saw the engravings thereof, all of which had the appearance of ancient work and of curious workmanship. And this we bear record, with words of soberness, that the said Smith has shown unto us, for we have seen and *hefted*, and know of a surety that the said Smith has got the plates of which we have spoken. And we give our names unto the world that which we have seen and we lie not, God bearing witness of it. Christian Whitmer, Jacob Whitmer, Peter Whitmer, jr., John Whitmer, Hiram Page, Joseph Smith, sen., Hyrum Smith, Samuel H. Smith."

Shortly after the publication of Mr. Smith's bible, he had the good fortune to make converts of two or three leaders of a new sect of religionists, known as "Reformers," or "Disciples," who were then making a stir in Ohio. With these followers he concluded to emigrate to the fructiferous west, and there raise his miraculous standard. Kirtland, Ohio, was first chosen as their head-quarters; and as many in that neighbourhood were much excited just then, looking for some wonderful event to take place in the world, they were readily induced to subscribe to the new doctrine, and turn their property into a common stock. The foundation of a temple was commenced on a most extensive scale. An unsuccessful application was made to the legislature of Ohio for the charter of a bank. Upon the refusal, they established an unchartered institution, and commenced their banking operations by issuing notes and making loans. For a time the society rapidly increased—but as the bank was a fraud, and they did not pretend to liquidate or allow of any claims against them from the unbelievers of the world, they were expelled from the state.

Their next attempt to establish themselves was in the state of Missouri; but as their ill-fame had preceded them there, a prohibitory spirit was found to have taken possession of the irreligious and matter-of-fact men

of that state, disallowing the settlement of the fanatics among them. The Mormons showed great perseverance in their attempt, and raised an armed force, a "sacred legion," to drive off "the infidels;" but as they were not sufficiently strong, many outrages were perpetrated against them, and they were eventually forced to leave the state. They then migrated to Illinois, and pitched upon Nauvoo, in Hancock county, for their "holy city." The foundation of another temple was laid, on a grand plan, and they were directly flourishing finely. Numerous converts joined them from the east, and from England, whither they had sent their emissaries. Alas, for these saints of the latter days! it was discovered that some of their chief apostles were engaged in the manufacture of *bogus*, or counterfeit coin, wherewithal to gull the simple among the sinners. Other and graver charges were also preferred against them; in consequence of all which, a war of extermination was declared against them by the Illinoians, and in one of the frequent crusades which were set on foot for their punishment, the assassination above-mentioned was perpetrated.

In the month of May there broke out in the peaceable city of Philadelphia, a riot, unprecedented for its bloody and destructive virulence. It appears, a political meeting of a party distinguished as "Native Americans," was called in the district of Kensington. The assemblage was numerous, and the proceedings were for convenience conducted in the open air; when, a shower of rain interrupting them, the meeting adjourned to the market-house. Opposite to this, unfortunately, was a row of buildings mostly occupied by foreigners, and from these an attack was in some manner provoked. A gun was discharged into the crowd, with deadly effect, from an upper window of one of the houses; and this rash and fool-hardy act, whatever previously might have been done, was the real cause of all the sanguinary and destructive proceedings which ensued. The assault was repelled on the instant, with aggravated violence; and, after a brief quiet of preparation by the leaders of the mob, with unreasoning fury they attacked alike men, churches, dwellings and even the market in the proscribed neighbourhood. A female seminary, belonging to the Romanists, was also assaulted. Everything "foreign," indeed, was denounced on the one hand, and everything "native" on the other, and for several days the civil power of the city and state were set at defiance, and proved inadequate to quell the fearful outbreak. Men were seized and hanged up in the streets on suspicion; and many upon both sides were killed or maimed who were unconnected with the disturbance except as spectators. When the constituted authorities finally obtained the ascendancy, from fifty to sixty buildings had been demolished—including the two elegant churches of St. Philip and St. Augustine—fourteen persons had been killed, thirty-nine wounded, and a multitude deprived of their means of subsistence. Martial law was proclaimed, and by the assistance of several companies of the United States troops, and Gen. Cadwallader's volunteers, order was at length restored.

With this year ceased the aspirations of a few more of the ambitious denizens of earth. Died at Andalusia, Pa., æ 58, Nicholas Biddle, Esq., late president of the U. S. Bank. In New-York, General Morgan Lewis, æ 90. In Philadelphia, P. S. Duponceau; also, Judge Baldwin. At Norfolk, Va., Commodore Kennedy. In Tennessee, Ex-governor Carroll. In Maryland, Judges Duvall and Magruder. At Niagara Falls., General P. B. Porter. At St. Louis, Mo., Governor Reynolds, by suicide. In Indiana, Ex-governor Noble. In Ohio, Hon. H. A. Moore. In Illinois, Ex-governor Duncan. At Albany, N. Y., Judge Cowan. In North Carolina, Judge Gaston. In Maine, Ex-governor Kavanagh. In Pa., Hon. Henry A. Muhlenburg; also, Almon H. Read. At Galveston, Texas, General Murphy, U. S. chargé d'affaires. At sea, Commander Shubrick. In Persia, Dr. Grant, American missionary. At Boulougne-sur-mer, Thomas

Campbell, poet. In France, General Bertrand, the friend of Napoleon. At Paris, M. Lafitte, the banker. In China, Howqua, the great Hong merchant, who hated the English and loved the Americans, and whose name is inscribed upon millions of tea-boxes. In Sweden, King Carl John, formerly the French marshal Bernadotte.

A. D. 1845.—The march of the Union is still onward—three new states, Iowa, Florida, and Texas, were with this year added to the national galaxy. On the fourth of March, also, a new president was inducted into office, in the place of Mr. Tyler. James K. Polk, of Tennessee, the youngest of the presidents (æ 49) was chosen; George M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, was associated with him as vice-president.

In May, was completed a treaty between the United States and the Grand Duchy of Hesse, which is important, as abolishing every kind of droit d'aubaine and tax on emigration. This will allow all aliens resident in either country to inherit real estate and dispose of the same, paying only such duties as the inhabitants of the country where the property lies would pay in like cases.

On the first day of July, went into operation the new and important "Act to reduce the rates of postage, to limit the use and correct the abuse of the franking privilege, and for the prevention of frauds on the revenues of the post-office department."

The post-office establishment is deserving of notice. The progress of this great branch of the public service, is illustrative of the rapid growth of the country and the extension of the resources of the people. Its steady increase from its commencement affords the most reliable evidence of a desire on the part of the people to maintain an intelligent communication of all parts of the Union with each other, as well as the means, by the industrious character of the population, to carry into effect such desires. The following table is compiled from a report of the Post-master General.

Years.	Receipts.	Expenditures.	No. of miles.	Years.	Receipts.	Expenditures.	No. of miles.
1790	$37,935	$32,140	7,375	1820	1,111,927	1,160,926	8,800,000
1795	160,620	117,843	1,799,720	1825	1,307,525	1,229,043	10,634,680
1800	280,504	213,994	3,057,964	1830	1,919,300	1,959,109	14,500,000
1805	421,373	377,367	4,250,000	1835	2,993,556	2,763,041	25,869,486
1810	551,684	475,969	4,694,000	1840	4,379,313	4,627,716	34,996,525
1815	1,043,065	748,121	5,001,000	1845	4,289,841	4,230,731	35,634,269

Thus, from the small beginning of about seven thousand miles of annual mail carriage, and an expenditure of less than $40,000, this department has arisen to be one of the most useful and important branches of the government. It now requires the agency of some fifteen thousand post-masters and their clerks, besides above three thousand contractors, and a large number of persons connected with the department in various ways. To carry on the complicated machinery of the general post-office in all its minute details, without confusion, requires system, method, and business talents of the highest order, foresight, capacity, and an attention to the business of the department unremitting.

Here we have exhibited, concisely, the produce in the course of a year of the mines now being worked in the United States, together with the number of persons employed in the same.

Articles.	Amount.	No. of men.	Articles.	Amount.	No. of men.
Cast Iron	$7.161,525	30,497	Anthracite Coal	4,318,355	3,043
Bar "	13,806,310		Salt	1,541,544	2,361
Lead	1,249,577	983	Bituminous Coal	1,656,190	3,762
Gold	528,605	1,046	Granite and Marble	3,679,444	7,729
Other metals	370,614	728			
			Total,	$34,344,164	50,249

The ratification of the treaty with China was one of the notable events of this season. Mr. Cushing, to the surprise of some who professed much knowledge of the difficulties to be encountered in the course of his mission, accomplished everything required of him, and upon the whole was eminently successful. A complimentary letter from his excellency, the President of the United States, to Tao-Kwang, the brother of the sun and moon, is pronounced by competent critics to be a perfect thing "of its kind." It is here given:

"To the Emperor of China.

"I, John Tyler, President of the United States of America, which states are—Maine, New-Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, Louisiana, Missouri, Alabama, Arkansas, Michigan,—send you this letter of peace and friendship, signed by my own hand.

"I hope your health is good. China is a great empire, extending over a great part of the world. The Chinese are numerous. You have millions and millions of subjects. The twenty-six United States are as large as China, though our people are not so numerous. The rising sun looks upon the great mountains and great rivers of China. When he sets, he looks upon rivers and mountains equally as large in the United States. Our territories extend from one great ocean to the other; and on the west we are divided from your dominions only by the sea. Leaving the mouth of one of our great rivers, and going constantly towards the setting sun, we sail to Japan and to the Yellow Sea.

"Now, my words are, that the governments of two such great countries should be at peace. It is proper, and according to the will of Heaven, that they should respect each other, and act wisely. I therefore send to your court, Caleb Cushing, one of the wise and learned men of this country. On his first arrival in China, he will inquire for your health. He has then strict orders to go to your great city of Pekin, and there to deliver this letter. He will have with him secretaries and interpreters.

"The Chinese love to trade with our people, and to sell them tea and silk, for which our people pay silver, and sometimes other articles. But if the Chinese and the Americans will trade, there shall be rules, so that they shall not break your laws nor our laws. Our minister, Caleb Cushing, is authorized to make a treaty to regulate trade. Let it be just. Let there be no unfair advantage on either side. Let the people trade not only at Canton, but also at Amoy, Ningpo, Shang-hai, Fuh-chow, and all such other places as may offer profitable exchanges both to China and the United States, provided they do not break your laws nor our laws. We shall not take the part of evil doers. We shall not uphold them that break your laws. Therefore, we doubt not that you will be pleased that our messenger of peace, with this letter in his hand, shall come to Pekin, and there deliver it, and that your great officers will, by your orders, make a treaty with him to regulate affairs of trade—so that nothing may happen to disturb the peace between China and America. Let the treaty be signed by your own imperial hand. It shall be signed by mine, by the authority of our great council, the Senate.

"And so may your health be good, and may peace reign."

"Written at Washington, this 12th day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-three.

"Your good friend,

"By the president: "JOHN TYLER.

"A. P. Upshur, Secretary of State."

The letter in reply from the Chinese emperor to the president, consists of a roll seven feet one inch long, by two feet eleven inches wide. The writing is on a field of plain yellow silk, with a margin of silk of the same colour, embroidered in gold thread. The letter is in two languages, Chinese and Manchu Tartar, in characters of large size, and in perpendicular columns, which are separated in the middle by the imperial seal—which is composed of Chinese characters, enclosed in a *cartouche* about three inches square. This roll is enclosed in a wrapper of yellow silk, yellow being the imperial colour, which again is enclosed in a round box covered

with yellow silk, and closed by two fastenings of *jade* stone, and finally is enclosed in an oblong square box of rose-wood, and padded and lined with yellow silk. The *size* of the letter indicates the respect; the letter itself is sufficiently curious and interesting, and is translated as follows:

"The GREAT EMPEROR presents his regards to the PRESIDENT, and trusts he is well.

"I, the EMPEROR, having looked up and received the manifest will of *Heaven*, hold the reins of government over, and soothe and tranquilize the *Central Flowery Kingdom*, regarding all within and beyond the border seas as one and the same family.

"Early in the spring, the ambassador of your honourable nation, *Caleb Cushing*, having received *your letter*, arrived from afar at my *province of Yue*. He having passed over the vast oceans with unspeakable toil and fatigue, I, the EMPEROR, not bearing to cause him further inconvenience of travelling by land and water, to dispense with his coming to *Peking*, to be presented at court, specially appointed *Yeking*, of the *Imperial House*, minister and commissioner extraordinary, to repair thither, and to treat him with courteous attention.

"Moreover, they having negotiated and settled all things proper, the said minister took the letter, and presented it for my inspection; and your sincerity and friendship being in the highest degree real, and the thoughts and sentiments being with the utmost sincerity and truth kind, at the time of opening and perusing it, my pleasure and delight were exceedingly profound.

"All and everything they had settled regarding the regulations of commerce, I the EMPEROR, further examined with utmost scrutiny, and found they are all perspicuous, and entirely and perfectly judicious, and forever worthy of adherence.

"To Kwang Chow, Hen Mun, Fuh Chow, Ning Po, and Shang Hae,* it is alike permitted the citizens of the United States to proceed, and according to the articles of the treaty, at their convenience to carry on commerce.

"Now, bound by perpetual amity and concord, advantage will accrue to the citizens of both nations, which, I trust, must certainly cause the PRESIDENT also to be extremely well satisfied and delighted.

"Tao Kwang, 24th yr., 11th mo., and 7th day (16th Dec., A. D. 1844.)"

Great seal of the empire, in Chinese and Tartar:

Signet of the Imperial will.

(Signed,) PETER PARKER,
Late Chinese Secretary to the Legation.

Chinese characters are ideographic; they express not only sounds, but things; consequently the origination of much of their peculiarity of style. When they first saw the American flag, they imagined the stars to be flowers, and gave to the country the name of *Hwa-kee-kwo*, the Flower-flag country, by which it is since generally known. The more dignified and diplomatic class, however, who pride themselves upon correctness, improve the title into *Ho-chung-kwo*, the Many-state country.

In the interior of New-York, in the month of August, a bold assertion of false principles resulted in the shedding of blood. Anti-rentism, a monstrous embodiment, a speciously disguised spirit of insurrection and agrarianism, was most criminally fomented by a few deceitful or brawling leaders to this sad result. The disturbances in the first instance were more immediately confined to the extensive manor of the Van Rensselaer family; but from the supineness of authorities in allowing themselves to be overruled there, the infection spread to the neighbouring counties of Ulster, Scoharie, Greene, and Delaware. Tenantry of every description began to resist the collection of ordinary and just dues against them; and perpetual lease-hold tenures, by whatever means or services acquired, were openly denounced as altogether barbarous, and in direct controversion of the present republican spirit of the age. The tenants, forsooth, would neither purchase, pay rent, nor restore to the rightful owners their possessions. And, strange as it may seem, in Delaware county, on the

* The five ports in the Chinese Empire, which the treaty opens to the commerce of the United States.

occasion of which we speak, not less than two hundred and sixty men were assembled, armed, and determined to carry into effect such mad principles. The officers of the law were resisted—and the sheriff in cold blood murdered. For this the grand jury of the county, instead of imitating the reprehensible laxity of their neighbours, indicted and caused the arrest of over one hundred persons, charged with murder and crimes of the highest magnitude; they were tried impartially, two were sentenced to be hung, and thirteen to be incarcerated in the state's prison for terms of seven years and upwards. The punishment of those condemned to death was afterwards commuted by the governor to imprisonment for life. This prompt exercise of power combined with mercy—together with some liberal changes made in the policy of the wealthier land owners, has restored harmony to the excited districts.

The calamity of fire again swept through the country. In Pittsburgh, Pa., not less than twenty-five squares of the city, containing near eighteen hundred buildings, were in one fell conflagration destroyed. A number of lives were lost, and hundreds of families who had conceived themselves to be beyond the reach of want, were in a day rendered homeless and destitute. It is true that aid was liberally extended to the sufferers by their sympathizing fellow-citizens; and neighbouring cities in public assemblages offered such palpable condolence as will, in all probability, soon enable the desolated township to resume its former creditable and prosperous condition.—Hardly had the public sympathies returned to their wonted quietude, when a new and unlooked-for infliction visited New-York. The people of that city were in July of this year painfully awakened from their dream of security against any extensive devastation by fire. It was then proved, at a most deplorable cost, that their bountiful supply of water did not afford any absolute protection against the desolating element. A fire broke out near the scene of the former conflagration in that city, which destroyed, besides a number of lives, over three hundred buildings, and property to the amount of between six and seven millions of dollars. On the occasion of this calamitous occurrence, the corporation of the city appointed a scientific committee of inquiry to ascertain whether *saltpetre* would explode or not—but the question still remains a mooted one.—In Philadelphia, also, irreparable damage was done, by the ruthless application of an incendiary torch to the Academy of Fine Arts. Many rare and valuable productions of artists now numbered with the dead, were destroyed.—*Quebec* was next visited by the scourge, and thirteen hundred houses were prostrated.

The statistics of manufactures, show a gross amount of capital invested throughout the Union of between three and four hundred millions of dollars. Perhaps the following is as correct a table, exhibiting the apportionment among the different branches of business, as can be given.

Manufactures of	*Amt. in Dolls.*	*Manufactures of*	*Amt. in Dolls.*
Cotton	56,340,453	Earthenware	1,104,825
Wool	21,696,895	Drugs, Medicines, &c.	4,151,895
Leather	33,134,403	Soap and Candles	6,000,000
Flax	322,205	Musical Instruments	923,924
Cordage	4,078,306	Carriages and Wagons	10,897,887
Mixed Manufactures	10,545,503	Ships	7,016,084
Silk	219,814	Furniture	7,555,405
Paper	7,153,092	Sugar, refined	3,250,700
Cast Iron	8,607,090	Confectionaries	1,769,571
Bar Iron	13,806,310	Gunpowder	1,795,459
Cannon and small arms	1,000,000	Precious metals	3,734,960
Hardware and Cutlery	6,451,967	Various metals	9,779,442
Machinery	10,980,581	Domest. goods made in families	26,023,380
Hats, Caps, and Bonnets	10,180,847	Non-enumerated articles	34,785,353
Glass	2,890,493		
		Total,	$307,196,844

A statement of the value of commerce of the states for the year:

States.	*Imports.*	*Exports.*	*States.*	*Imports.*	*Exports.*
Maine,	$606,864	$1,050,525	North-Carolina,	$187,404	$344,650
New-Hampshire,	60,481	28,547	South-Carolina,	1,359,465	1,525,725
Vermont,	209,868	557,509	Georgia,	341,764	4,300,257
Massachusetts	17,986,433	9,807,110	Alabama,	363,871	9,965,673
Rhode-Island,	323,692	348,696	Mississippi,		
Connecticut,	335,707	532,392	Louisiana,	3,033,590	28,404,149
New-York,	57,875,604	27,576,778	Ohio,	13,051	809,786
New-Jersey,	145	60,907	Kentucky,	17,306	
Pennsylvania,	7,385.858	3,770,727	Tennessee,	5,687	
Delaware,	3,557	55,665	Michigan,	80,784	262,229
Maryland,	4,417,078	4,904,766	Missouri,	31,137	
Dist. of Columbia,	29,056	501,675	Florida,	176,980	33,384
Virginia,	3,801,417	3,750,386			
			Total,	$100,162,087	$104,691,534

The men who passed away this year, were General Andrew Jackson, in Tennessee, æ 78; also, Hon. J. H. Peyton and D. W. Dickinson. Senator Bates and Hon. L. Saltonstall, of Mass. General Dawson, of La., and Douglass Houghton, of Mich. Prof. Ware, of Harvard college, and Roger M. Sherman, of Ct. At Princeton, N. J., Prof. Dod. In Hatfield, Ct., Oliver Smith, leaving $600,000 for benevolent purposes. In Cambridge, Mass., Judge Story. In New-York, Rev. Dr. Milnor, of St. George's church; also, Dr. Mallison, Prof. of electro-magnetism. In Philadelphia, Commodore Elliott. By loss of the Swallow, on the Hudson river, 14 persons were drowned: and by explosion of the Big Hatchee, on the Missouri, from 20 to 30 were killed or scalded.

A. D. 1846.—The all-absorbing theme of discussion with the national legislators at the commencement of this year, is *Oregon*. The debates have at times worn a stormy and belligerent aspect, as also the negotiation between ministers; but since more difficult and more important subjects of dispute between the great powers presenting opposing claims to this sterile territory have been amicably settled heretofore, it cannot be doubted but this will be also adjusted without resort to arms.

AMERICAN STATES.

NORTH AMERICA.

Republics.	*Population.*	*Capital.*	*Presidents.*
United States	17,669,453	Washington,	James K. Polk.
Mexico	7,723,000	Mexico,	Gen. de Herrera.
Central America	2,000,000	San Salvador,	Gen. Carrera.
Yucatan	580,948	Merida,	Miguel Barbachano.
Hayti	933,000	Cape Haytien,	Gen. Louis Pierrot.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Argentine Republic	1,000,000	Buenos Ayres,	Don J. M. de Rosas
Peru	1,700,000	Lima,	General Gamarra.
New-Grenada	1,931,684	Bogota,	General Herran.
Bolivia	1,030,000	Chuquisaca,	General Ballivian.
Chili	1,200,000	Santiago,	General Bulnes.
Venezuela	900,000	Caraccas,	General Paez.
Equador	600,000	Quito, Gen'ls.	Olmedo and Flores.
Paraguay	300,000	Assumption,	Don Carlos Lopez.
Uruguay	150,000	Monte Video,	Fructuoso Rivera.

Empire.	*Population.*	*Capital.*	*Emperor.*
Brazil	5,130,418	Rio Janeiro,	Pedro II.

OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE DIFFERENT STATES.

VIRGINIA.

Of the original thirteen colonies, this was the largest, and probably the first settled. It received its name in honor of Elizabeth, the "virgin queen" of England. We are told that the London company, soon after its incorporation in 1606, despatched to America three ships, having on board one hundred and five persons, destined to begin a settlement in the southern part of this rich and beautiful country. The squadron was commanded by Christopher Newport, and in company with him was Capt. Gosnold, and the celebrated John Smith. Instead of being warned by the failure of Sir Walter Raleigh's attempt formerly to colonise Virginia, and preserving among themselves a unanimity of feeling and action, these adventurers began to quarrel with each other concerning their eventual precedency long before they reached the land.

It seems, a sealed box had been delivered to the commander, with orders that it should not be opened until twenty-four hours after the emigrants had landed in America. It was understood, however, that said box contained instructions for their guidance in establishing themselves colonially after landing. Smith, from a certain bold and perhaps overbearing demeanor, incurred the hatred of his companions, and was most absurdly accused of an intention to murder the colonial council, usurp the government, and make himself king of Virginia. Upon this unfounded accusation he was put in close confinement, and held until the arrival and debarkation of the colonists. They were fortuitously driven by stress of weather farther northward than their contemplated place of landing, which was the disastrous Roanoke island, and entered the mouth of Chesapeake bay on the 26th of April, 1607. Here they discovered a large and beautiful river, which they named James river, and chose as a proper spot for commencing a permanent settlement, the present position of Jamestown.

On the 13th of May they debarked, and proceeded at once to organise their government. The mysterious box, as they had surmised, was found to contain the names of the council, and instructions for their guidance. In the list were the names of Gosnold, Smith, Wingfield, and Newport. Wingfield was elected President, but a vote was passed excluding Smith from his seat at the board. They had, however, the magnanimity to release him from confinement; and his subsequent services to the colony were of great moment. It is difficult to account for the dilatory spirit of these adventurers, as regards the cultivation of the soil; they had no visible means of support for any length of time, and yet neglected to put in any crops during the first year of their settlement. Barter and negotiation with the Indians for a time sufficed to supply them with the necessaries of life; but this was a very uncertain and precarious mode of subsistence, as they presently found. The aborigines became aware of the comparative dependence of the new comers upon them, and lost, in a great measure, that reverential awe with which they had at first welcomed them.

In four months from the time of their landing, fifty of their number

had perished, and the remainder were so disheartened that they determined upon returning to England. In this emergency the great abilities of Smith were made manifest; he undertook to regulate the affairs of the colony, and was certainly very successful in so doing. In 1608, Capt. Newport arrived with one hundred and twenty new settlers, and a supply of provisions. This was a source of great joy to the colony; but their prospects were soon overcast; for about this time they discovered in the bed of a small river near Jamestown, a shining substance which they supposed to be gold-dust. A sort of universal phrensy was excited by this discovery. "Immediately," says Smith, "there was no thought, no discourse, no hope, and no work, but to dig gold, wash gold, refine gold, and load gold." Smith used all his influence to convince them of their folly, but to no purpose. A vessel was loaded with the useless commodity, and sent to England. On its arrival there, the cargo was examined, and found to be nothing but earth, filled with small pieces of shining stone.

In one of Smith's excursions into the interior, attended only by an Indian guide, he was surrounded by a body of savages and taken prisoner. His exulting captors conducted him to Powhatan, the principal chieftain of Virginia. After many ceremonies and consultations they decided to put him to death. He was accordingly led forth to execution. His head was placed upon a stone, and a war-club presented to Powhatan, who claimed the honour of being his executioner. As the chief raised the club to give the fatal blow, Pocahontas, his favourite daughter, rushed through the crowd and clasped the head of Smith in her arms, laid her own upon it, and entreated her father to spare his life. Powhatan was amazed. He let fall the club and set Smith at liberty, and soon after had him conducted in safety to Jamestown. In 1612, Pocahontas incurred the resentment of her father—probably on account of her attachment to the whites—when she left her home and visited the territories of Jopazows, chief of the Potomacs. Capt. Argoll, having sailed up the Potomac river, on a trading voyage, prevailed on Jopazows, by the tempting offer of a copper kettle, to surrender her to him. He detained and carried her to Jamestown, presuming that Powhatan would do no hurt to the English while they retained possession of his daughter.

But the noble-hearted chief felt indignant at the treachery of the whites, and refused to listen to any terms of peace till Pocahontas was restored. During her detention at Jamestown, Mr. Thomas Rolfe, an Englishman of respectable character, became attached to her and offered her his hand. It was accepted, and the consent of Powhatan being obtained, the marriage was solemnized with great pomp, in presence of the uncle of Pocahontas and her two brothers. This event relieved the colony from the enmity of Powhatan, and preserved peace between them for many years. In 1616 she embarked with her husband for England, and was received by the king and queen with the attention due to her rank. While in London she received a visit from her former friend, Capt. Smith. Her residence among civilized men was destined, however, to be short. While about to embark from Gravesend, with her husband and an infant son, to return to Virginia, she died, at the age of twenty-two. Her son was educated in London, and from him are descended some of the most respectable families in Virginia.

In 1609 the London Company obtained a new charter, granting greater power and privileges than the former. They soon after sent out nine ships, with nine hundred emigrants, to Virginia. The vessel on board of which were the officers appointed to govern the colony, was unfortunately driven by a storm upon the Bermuda islands; the others arrived safely. Most of the persons who came in these were of a vicious character. They at first refused to submit to the authority of Smith,

and by this means threw the colony into great confusion. Smith determined, however, that he would be obeyed until the arrival of the officers that were appointed to succeed him. He accordingly seized upon the leaders of the sedition, and put them in prison, and by this means order was again restored.

About this time, the Indians, fearing that the white people would become too powerful, concerted a plot to destroy them all. Pocahontas heard of it, and resolved to save them. Accordingly, one dark and stormy night, she hastened to Jamestown, and informed Smith of his danger. He immediately took measures to put the colony in a state of defence, and the Indians, perceiving that their design was discovered, gave up the project. Soon after, Smith received a severe wound, and returned to England to procure the aid of a surgeon. The most unhappy consequences followed. The Indians, perceiving the absence of the man they feared, attacked the colony with united forces. They cut off all supplies, and thus reduced the settlers to the greatest extremity. Such was their wretched condition, that they devoured the skins of their horses, the bodies of the Indians they had killed, and at last the flesh of their dead companions. This period was remembered by the name of "the starving time." In six months their number was reduced from more than five hundred to sixty, and these feeble and dejected. While the colonists were in this situation, the persons who had been wrecked on the Bermudas arrived. The colonists again determined to return to England, and for this purpose they embarked and sailed down the river. Fortunately, however, they were met by Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor of Virginia, with supplies of men and provisions. He persuaded them to return to Jamestown, and by a judicious exercise of authority he restored order and contentment, and for several years the affairs of the colony continued in a prosperous condition.

In 1611, Lord Delaware, in consequence of ill health, returned to England, and was succeeded by Sir Thomas Dale. Public authority was now rigidly enforced. Hitherto no right of private property in land had been established. The fields that had been cleared were cultivated by the joint labour of the whole, and the produce was deposited in public stores, and shared in common. This plan of proceeding presented but few inducements to industry, and the idle and improvident trusted entirely to what was distributed from the common stores. To remedy these evils, Sir Thomas divided a considerable portion of land into lots of three acres each, and granted one of these to each individual to be his own property. The happy effects of this measure were soon so manifest, that another assignment of fifty acres to each one was made, and the plan of working in a common field was entirely abandoned. From this time the colony rapidly increased and improved. In 1616 they began to cultivate tobacco, a plant which was first found in that soil, and became the great staple of Virginia.

Thus far the affairs of the colony had been managed by a governor and council, appointed by the London company, and from 1611 they had been under martial law, like a garrison of soldiers, but the people had become dissatisfied with this state of things. They longed to enjoy the rights and privileges to which they had been accustomed in their native country. To gratify this noble desire of the colonists, Governor Yeardly, in 1619, called a general assembly, consisting of representatives from the several plantations or boroughs. It met at Jamestown on the 19th of June, and was the first legislative assembly ever held in America. The colony hitherto consisted almost entirely of men who came for the purpose of acquiring wealth, and who intended again to return to England. But in order to attach them more to the soil, and to induce them to regard this as their home, in 1620, the company sent

over ninety girls, to be disposed of among the young planters for wives. At first the price of a wife was one hundred pounds of tobacco, but the demand for them increased so much that it soon rose to one hundred and sixty pounds. The same year a Dutch vessel arrived at Jamestown with twenty Africans, and offered them for sale as slaves. They were purchased by the people. These were the first slaves brought into the country, and thus was laid the foundation for that system of slavery which now exists in the United States. Emigrants continued to arrive from England, and the settlements were widely extended. The colony was now advancing on the full tide of prosperity; but it was destined soon to experience a sudden and dreadful reverse of fortune. The Indians, though apparently friendly, formed a plan for the total destruction of the English. On the 22d of May, 1622, the savages burst forth upon the settlements and murdered the whites without distinction of age or sex. The whole colony would have been cut off, had not a friendly Indian given notice of the plot, in time to put Jamestown and a few neighbouring settlements on their guard. The English were roused to vengeance by this horrid scene. They attacked the Indians with fire and sword, killed multitudes of them, and drove the remainder far into the wilderness. By means of this calamity the settlements of the colony were reduced from eighty to eight; and in 1624, out of nine thousand persons who had been sent from England, only eighteen hundred were living. These misfortunes induced King James, in 1624, to dissolve the London company, and take the government of the colony into his own hands. He appointed a governor and twelve counsellors, to whom all authority was committed; and this arbitrary act was followed by others equally oppressive. The colonists submitted to these tyrannical measures until 1636, when they had become so disgusted with the conduct of their governor, that they seized and sent him prisoner to England. King Charles was so much displeased with this act of the colonists, that he sent him back, with full power to govern as before.

In 1639, Sir William Berkley, distinguished for the mildness of his temper, was appointed to the government of the colony, with instructions to restore the general assembly. This gave great satisfaction to the people, and under his wise administration they enjoyed many years of peace and prosperity. In 1652, Cromwell, who was then at the head of government in England, sent a strong force to compel the governor of Virginia to acknowledge his authority. After a brave resistance Berkley was obliged to submit, when for several years governors were appointed by Cromwell, and oppressive restrictions were imposed upon the colonists. At length the people renounced the authority of their oppressors, and again conferred the office of governor upon Berkley, who was still residing in the colony. Soon after this event news arrived that Cromwell was dead, and that Charles II. was on the throne of England. The authority of Berkley was confirmed by the king, but the rights of the people were little regarded. Large tracts of land belonging to the colony were granted to the favourites of Charles; this produced great excitement in Virginia, and resulted in all the horrors of civil war. The opposing party was swayed by the eloquence of a young and ambitious lawyer by the name of Nathaniel Bacon. He was elected general, and arrayed himself, with six hundred armed men, against the governor and council. Hostilities continued for several months, during which Jamestown was reduced to ashes, and the crops in the fields were laid waste. Troops at length arrived from England, who, on the death of Bacon, which occurred soon after, put an end to the disturbance and restored Berkley to power. Many of the rebels were tried and executed. The assembly, however, soon after interfered, and by wise and salutary laws succeeded in restoring peace and harmony

among the colonists. The majority of the people of Virginia were for a long time opposed to slavery; and laws were passed to prevent it. But the selfish policy of the kings and proprietors in England encouraged the introduction of slaves, and the evil could not be resisted by the colonists.

The state has a great variety of surface and of soil. From the sea coast to the termination of tide water, which includes a tract from 110 to 120 miles in width, the country is low and flat, in some places marshy; the soil is sandy, covered with pitch pine, light, and of but little fertility, except on the margins of the rivers, where it is often productive. This is denominated the low country, and is unhealthy from August to October. Between the head of tide water and the Blue ridge, the country gradually rises and becomes uneven, and near the mountains often abrupt and broken, though the soil is fertile.

The mineral wealth of Virginia is very great. Gold, copper, lead, iron, coal, salt, limestone, and marble are found; and it has a number of very celebrated mineral springs, particularly those impregnated with sulphur. Mining has recently received much attention; in 1840, 2000 persons were engaged in it. The belt of the country in which gold is found is in Spottsylvania county and the adjacent country, and extending in a S. W. direction, it passes into North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama. But the iron and coal are much more valuable. The coal fields are very extensive, both anthracite and bituminous, and large quantities have been exported, particularly from the neighborhood of Richmond. Salt springs are found, and large quantities of salt are exported from the banks of the Great Kanawha.

The first constitution of Virginia was formed in 1776. This was amended by a convention assembled for that purpose, in 1830. The governor is elected for three years by the joint vote of the two houses of assembly, but is ineligible for the next succeeding three years. He must be at least 30 years of age, must be a native born citizen of the United States, and have resided in the state for five years next preceding his election. The council of state consists of three members, elected for three years, one of the number retiring annually. They are the advisers of the governor. The senior councillor is lieutenant-governor, and acts as governor in case of the death, resignation, absence, or inability of the governor. The senate consists of 32 members, elected by the people for four years, one fourth of the number retiring annually. A member must be at least 30 years of age, and have a residence and a freehold in the district for which he is elected. The house of delegates consists of 134 members, elected annually by the people. A member must be at least 25 years of age, and have a residence and a freehold in the district for which he is elected. No person holding a lucrative office, no ministers of the gospel, or priests of any denomination, can be elected a member of the assembly. The judges of the supreme court of appeals, and the superior courts, are elected by the joint vote of both houses of assembly, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The attorney-general is appointed in the same manner, and holds his office during the pleasure of the general assembly. Every white male citizen of the state, of 21 years of age or upwards, who owns an interest in a freehold estate of the value of $25, or who is a house-keeper or head of a family, and has paid taxes, excepting paupers, non-commissioned officers, soldiers, seamen or marines in the service of the United States, and persons convicted of infamous crimes, is entitled to the right of suffrage. The general assembly meets annually at Richmond on the first Monday of December. At all elections, votes are given openly, or *viva voce*, and not by ballot, as in most of the other states.

NEW-YORK.

Probably the first European who landed on the soil of New-York, was John de Verrazano, a Florentine, in the service of Francis I. of France. About the middle of March, 1524, he arrived on the American coast, near Wilmington, N. C., from which point he proceeded as far south as Georgia. He then turned and coasted north, until he came to about the latitude of 41° north, where he entered a harbour, which, from his description, is believed to be that of New-York. Verrazano stayed in the harbour about fifteen days; traded freely with the natives, and left on the 5th of May, coasting as far as Labrador, whence he sailed for France. In a letter to the king he gave an account of his voyage, giving the name of New-France to the country he visited; but as his voyage neither produced nor promised any addition to the revenues of France, his discoveries were not pursued. In a subsequent expedition this voyager was lost, having been destroyed, it is supposed, by savages.

In 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, in the service of the Dutch East India Company, discovered the Hudson river, and ascended it about 160 miles. In consequence of this discovery, the Dutch laid claim to a large extent of territory on both sides of this river, and called it New-Netherlands. In 1613, several Dutch merchants erected a fort where Albany now stands, which they named Fort Orange. The next year they built several trading houses on the island of Manhattan, now called New-York, to which they gave the name of Nieu-Amsterdam. The English claimed the whole continent by virtue of Cabot's discoveries, and regarded the Dutch as intruders; and in the same year, Captain Argall, from Virginia, with a fleet of three ships, visited these settlements on the Hudson, demanded a surrender of the fort, and claimed the territory, as properly constituting a part of Virginia. Their number being small, they submitted without resistance. But the next year a new governor arrived from Holland, and the Dutch renounced the authority of the English, and retained possession until 1664. They erected a fort on the Delaware, and and one also at the mouth of the Connecticut, and laid claim to all the territory between these rivers. In 1655, Peter Stuyvesant, the Dutch governor, with a fleet of seven ships attacked and subdued the Swedes, who had settled on the west side of the Delaware river; but the Dutch soon had to encounter again their old enemies, the English. In 1664, Charles II. granted to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany, all New-England, and the territory then in the possession of the Dutch. A squadron, therefore, soon appeared in New-York harbour, under the command of Colonel Nichols. The English immediately demanded a surrender of the town, and promised to secure to the inhabitants the rights of life and property. Governor Stuyvesant determined to resist; but at length the inhabitants constrained him to submit. The English took possession, and in honor of the duke, called the town New-York. Soon after, Fort Orange was taken, and named Albany. Nichols now assumed the government of the country, and under his liberal administration, New York, in 1665, was made a city, and is now the grand metropolis of the western world.

In 1673, shortly after war was declared between England and Holland, a Dutch fleet arrived at Staten Island, and by the treachery of the commander of the fort, was permitted to enter the harbour of New-York without resistance. The Dutch immediately took possession of the city; but soon the news of peace arrived, and the country was again restored to the English. Sir Edmund Andross was appointed governor of the province, but his administration was distinguished for nothing but a course of tyranny. The people of the colony became discontented under the arbitrary regulations imposed upon them; and in 1682, they were first

permitted to take part in the government. An assembly, consisting of a council of ten, appointed by the duke, and eighteen representatives, chosen by the people, were allowed to make the laws of the colony. In 1690, during the war between England and France, the French of Canada conspired with certain tribes of Indians for the destruction of the English settlements. On the 8th of February, a party attacked and destroyed the town of Schenectady. Every house was surrounded, and a horrid yell broke the stillness of the night; the inhabitants sprang from their beds, found their dwellings in flames, and their doors guarded by the savage foe. Some escaped; but naked and exposed to a storm, many of them perished before they could reach Albany, their nearest place of refuge. In this cruel assault, sixty were killed, twenty-seven made prisoners, and twenty-five lost their hands and feet by the cold. These and other savage cruelties, led the English colonists to combine their forces against Canada. Sir William Phipps, with a large fleet, sailed up the St. Lawrence; and an army proceeded from New-York by land, as far as Lake Champlain; but owing to some mismanagement, this expedition failed of success.

In 1691, King William appointed Colonel Henry Sloughter governor of New-York. At this time the colony needed a magistrate of talents and energy. Sloughter had neither; he was weak and vicious. Ex-governor Leisler disputed his authority; but after several vain attempts to maintain his own power, he, with Malborne, were taken and condemned for high treason. Sloughter at first refused to execute the sentence of the court; but at a feast, in a fit of intoxication, he was induced to sign the death warrant, and they were executed. Their estates were afterwards restored to their families, and their bodies were taken up by their party and buried with great pomp, in the old Dutch church, in the city of New-York. Sloughter died in 1691; and he was succeeded the next year by Colonel Fletcher. Fletcher desired to promote among the Dutch inhabitants the use of the English language, and the interests of the English church; and these objects he recommended to the attention of the assembly. After much difficulty, a bill was passed encouraging education in the colony, and providing for the support of ministers of the gospel, who were to be chosen by the people.

In 1698, the Earl of Bellamont was made governor of the colony, at which time the American seas were infested with pirates. The earl proposed to send out a naval force against them; but the assembly rejected the proposal. He then fitted out a private vessel, under the command of Captain Kidd, who afterwards became a pirate himself. Bellamont was succeeded, in 1702, by Lord Cornbury, son of the celebrated earl of Clarendon. In his private character, Cornbury was vicious and contemptible; as a magistrate, he was tyrannical and prodigal of the people's money. He was removed from office, and soon after seized by his creditors and thrown into prison.

In 1710, the queen appointed General Hunter governor of the colony. During his administration, another attempt was made for the subjugation of Canada. An army of 4,000 men left Albany and marched against Montreal. A large fleet proceeded up the St. Lawrence, but meeting with a violent storm, many of the ships were dashed upon the rocks, and the remainder returned to England. When this was made known to the army the troops were disheartened, and the enterprise was abandoned.

In 1719, Hunter left the colony in a state of perfect harmony, and returned to Europe, when his office was conferred upon William Burnet, son of the celebrated Bishop Burnet. At this time the French were erecting forts along the lakes and rivers, from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico. Their policy in this, was to cut off the fur trade of the English, and secure it all to themselves. Burnet endeavored to defeat their object, by build-

ing a fort at Oswego. He watched all the movements of the Indians, and sought to prevent their union with the French. After Burnet, the government of the colony devolved successively upon Colonel Montgomery, Rip Van Dam, and William Crosby. The latter arrived at New-York in 1732. During his administration a prosecution was commenced, through his influence, against the editor of a newspaper, for publishing an offensive article. After a noble defence by Andrew Hamilton, the editor was acquitted, and Hamilton was greatly applauded by the citizens, who desired the entire liberty of the press.

After the death of Crosby, in 1736, George Clark was appointed lieutenant-governor. For many years a severe contest had existed between the governor and the house of representatives. The governor wished to have the control of the public money, and make such appropriations as he saw fit. On the other hand, the house contended that no money should be expended for any object which they did not approve. During Clark's administration the contest was maintained on both sides with a great deal of spirit, but the representatives prevailed. At this time there were many negroes in the city of New-York; fires occurred frequently, and suspicion was excited against them. Some of them were detected in setting fire to buildings, and it was then reported that they had formed a plot to burn the city, and intended to appoint a governor of their own. The people were terrified; about thirty negroes were seized and put to death, and two white men were tried and executed. When the alarm was over the people began to reflect upon the character of the witnesses and their testimony; none of them were respectable, and the evidence of a plot had all vanished; terror and prejudice had led the magistrates to a course of manifest cruelty and injustice.

In 1743, George Clinton, a man of eminent talents, was appointed governor. He soon secured the love and confidence of the people, and united their energies against the French and Indians. The frequent depredations of the enemy upon the English settlements led to the project of another expedition against Canada; but before their plan was carried into operation peace was restored. In 1753 Gov. Clinton resigned his office, and was succeeded by Sir Danvers Osborne. This gentleman, five days after his arrival, committed suicide, through grief for the loss of his wife. James Delancey, who had been lieutenant-governor under Clinton, then assumed the chief authority. In 1755 Sir Charles Hardy arrived in New-York with commission of governor; but being a naval officer unacquainted with civil affairs, he put himself altogether into the hands of Mr. Delancey. The governors next succeeding were Cadwallader Colden, General Monckton, Sir Henry Moore, and William Tryon, the last-named closing the list of royal governors.

The climate of New-York is various. In the south part the winters are mild but changeable; in the north-east part they are severe but more uniform; in the level country west of the mountains the climate is more mild than in the same latitude in the east part. The principal river in the state is the Hudson, three hundred and twenty-four miles long, which enters New-York bay, and is navigable for sloops one hundred and fifty-one miles, to Troy. Lakes Erie, Champlain, and Ontario lie partly within the state: of those which lie wholly within it, are lakes George, Oneida, Skaneateles, Owasco, Cayuga, Seneca, Canandaigua, and Crooked lake, which, with the exception of lake George, discharge their waters into lake Ontario, and Chatauque lake, which empties into the Alleghany river. Two principal chains of high lands, rising to mountains, cross the eastern part of the state. One of these comes from New-Jersey, and crosses the Hudson at West Point, where on each side of the river the mountains, in places coming to the water's edge, and rising to the height of from one thousand to one thousand seven hundred feet, consti-

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tute some of the grandest and most interesting scenery in the country, known as the "Highlands." These mountains are from fifteen to twenty miles wide, and after crossing the Hudson river proceed northerly; form the Taghkannic mountains, divide the waters which fall into the Hudson from those flowing into the Housatonic river, and thence into Long Island Sound. Another range comes from the north-west part of New-Jersey, and constitutes the Shawagunk mountains. A third range comes from Pennsylvania, and proceeding north through Sullivan, Ulster, and Greene counties, constitute the Catskill mountains. The Adirondack mountains in the north-east part, and south-west of lake Champlain, are the loftiest mountains in the state, Mount Marcy, the highest peak, being 6460 feet high, and little inferior to the White mountains in New-Hampshire.

This state boasts the noblest cataract on the earth—that of Niagara. It is computed that 100,000,000 tons of water are discharged over the precipice every hour. The height of the fall near the American shore is 163 feet; near Goat Island, on the Canada shore, 154 feet; the distance around the Horse-shoe fall is 144 rods. The river at the falls is nearly a mile wide, but directly below is compressed to less than a fourth that distance; and while it makes a constant descent, with amazing velocity, the banks rise gradually for six miles. Some suppose the falls to have receded from the escarpment of Queenston to their present site; but Dr. Lyell, the geologist, conjectures the time necessary for such recession, to be 35,000 years.

New-York has several important literary institutions. Columbia college, formerly King's college, was founded in New-York city in 1754, and is under the direction, though not exclusively, of the Episcopalians; Union college at Schenectady was founded in 1795; Hamilton college in Clinton was founded in 1812; Geneva college, conducted by the Episcopalians, was founded in Geneva in 1823; the University of the city of New-York was founded in 1831; the Hamilton literary and theological seminary was founded by the Baptists in 1819; the Theological Institute of the Episcopal church was founded in 1819, in the city of New-York; the seminary connected with the University, was founded in 1826; the seminary at Auburn was founded by the Presbyterians in 1821; the Hartwick seminary was founded, in Otsego county, by the Lutherans, in 1816; the seminary of the Associate Reformed Church, at Newburgh, in 1836; the College of Physicians and Surgeons in the city of New-York, in 1807; the Albany Medical College, in 1839.

The governor is elected biennially by the people. He must be thirty years of age, be a native-born citizen of the United States, and have resided five years in the state. The lieutenant is elected in like manner, and must possess similar qualifications. He is president of the senate; and in case of the impeachment, removal, death, or absence of the governor, discharges the duties of the office. The senate consists of thirty-two members, who are chosen for five years, one fourth of whom are elected every year. The assembly consists of one hundred and twenty-eight members, elected annually by the people. The governor nominates all judicial officers, except justices of the peace, and has the power of appointment, with the consent of the senate. The judges hold their offices during good behaviour, or until they are sixty years of age. Every male white citizen of full twenty-one years of age, who has resided for one year in the state, and for six months preceding the election, in the county where he offers his vote, enjoys the right of suffrage. Persons of colour are allowed to vote who have resided five years in the state, who possess a freehold of $250, and have held it for one year previous to the election, and pay a tax upon it.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Pennsylvania was first settled by the Swedes, in 1638, who purchased from the natives the land upon the western shore of Delaware bay and river, from cape Henlopen to the falls opposite the present city of Trenton. In 1642, the Swedish governor erected a handsome house for himself on an island just below the mouth of the Schuylkill, and caused a church to be built, which was consecrated in 1646. The Dutch government at New-Netherlands conquered the Swedes in 1654. When the English conquered New-Netherlands in 1664, the Dutch possessions on Delaware river fell into their hands, and for several years remained subject to the governors of New-York. In 1681 Pennsylvania was granted by Charles II. to William Penn, a member of the society of Friends, in consideration of the services of his father as a British admiral. Four years from the grant of the charter, the province contained twenty-two settlements, and Philadelphia had two thousand inhabitants. In 1684 Penn returned to England, and appointed five commissioners, with a president, to administer the government during his absence. He returned to the state in 1699, having been confirmed in his proprietary rights. In 1768, Mason and Dixon's line was drawn, to mark the boundary between this state and Maryland. Penn died in 1718, leaving his interest in Pennsylvania as an inheritance to his children, who continued to possess it until the revolutionary war, when their claim was purchased by the commonwealth for £130,000 sterling, or $580,000. In 1784, the last remaining portion of the state, not previously purchased, was bought of the Indians, lying in its north-west part. In 1776 a state constitution was formed, which continued in operation till 1790, when another constitution was adopted, which remained until 1838, when the present constitution was adopted. The United States' constitution was adopted in convention, December 13th, 1787; yeas 46, nays 23; majority 23. Philadelphia remained the seat of the United States' government until 1800, when it was removed to Washington.

The climate of Pennsylvania, though healthy and temperate, is variable and inconstant. The extremes of temperature are from 20° below zero of Fahrenheit to 98° above; but such extremes are of short continuance. The mean temperature is from 44° to 52°.

The surface of Pennsylvania is greatly diversified. There are few large tracts of level land in the state. The south-eastern counties, though they can scarcely be denominated hilly, have an undulating and variable surface. South mountain extends from the Delaware below Easton in a south-west direction through the state, to the borders of Maryland in Adams county. Next to this, Kittatiny, or Blue mountain, extends from the Delaware Water-Gap, and proceeds south-west with a regular elevation of from seven hundred to twelve hundred feet above the level of the streams at its base, and terminates at Parnell's Knob, an elevated and picturesque summit in Franklin county, near the south border of the state. North of the Blue mountain, and between the Lehigh and Susquehanna, is a wild mountainous region, where the anthracite coal is found. This region is interspersed with high and barren ridges in close succession, interlocking with each other, and enclosing long and pointed valleys between them. The Second and Sharp mountains are between Kittatiny and the first coal basin. Next comes Broad mountain, an irregular elevation, with a broad and barren table-land at its top. East of the Susquehanna are several ridges with various names. The valley of Wyoming is enclosed by a chain of lofty mountains, known by many local names. Between Kittatiny, or Blue mountain, and the Alleghany, is what has been called the Appalachian chain, which consists of high

and nearly parallel ridges, sometimes approaching near to each other, and at other times with valleys between them of twenty miles in breadth, frequently divided by smaller ridges. The elevated range, called the great Alleghany, extends nearly across the whole state, presenting on its south-eastern side a steep ascent, but extending north and west with a gentle descent, and consists of an elevated and undulating table-land. Beyond the Alleghany are Laurel hill and Chestnut ridge, which are high ridges running parallel with the Alleghany ridge.

Most of the country west of the Alleghany mountains is a hilly country, with many irregular and abrupt elevations, not disposed in chains. The soil of the state is generally good, and much of it is of a superior quality; the richest tract is on the south-east, and on both sides of the Susquehanna river. This part of the state has been long settled, and is under excellent cultivation. In the country west of the Alleghany mountains there is much fertile land. For some distance from the mountain, the country is hilly and rough. The more level tracts, particularly along the streams, are highly fertile. Between the Alleghany river and lake Erie, and the western border of the state, the soil is excellent. By far the most important production of the state is wheat, and next in value to that is Indian corn. Rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, hemp and flax, are also extensively cultivated. Apples, cherries, and peaches are abundant, and much cider is made. Although the state, as a whole, is better adapted to grain than to grazing, yet in many parts there are large dairies; and fine horses and cattle are raised.

The mineral wealth of Pennsylvania is very great, consisting of coal, iron, and salt, which are abundant. The immense coal regions form the most interesting feature of the mineral resources of the state. Bituminous coal of an excellent quality, and inexhaustible in quantity, is almost everywhere found west of the Alleghany mountains, and in the south part of the state, to the east of them. In Pittsburgh and the vicinity, it is extensively used for manufacturing purposes. In this region salt springs occur, which afford a very strong brine. The anthracite coal region, with some few exceptions, is bounded on the north-west by the north branch of Susquehanna river, extending in a north-east direction for over sixty miles, and divided into the southern, middle, and northern coal-fields. These three great deposites of anthracite coal have been calculated to contain 975 square miles, or 624,000 acres, in some places fifty or sixty feet deep; and as each cubic yard in the ground is calculated to yield a ton of coal, it is easy to conceive that the quantity must be immensely great. The bituminous coal region of Pennsylvania has been estimated at 21,000 square miles, or 13,440,000 acres, over which it is scattered.

The Delaware river washes the eastern border of the state, and is navigable for ships of the line to Philadelphia. The Lehigh, after a course of seventy-five miles, enters it at Easton. The Schuylkill is about one hundred and thirty miles long, and unites with the Delaware six miles below Philadelphia. The Susquehanna river rises in the state of New-York, and flows south through this state, and enters Chesapeake bay in Maryland. It is much obstructed by rapids and falls, but furnishes a descending navigation for boats and rafts, in time of high water. The Juniata rises among the Alleghany mountains, and, after a course of one hundred and eighty miles, enters the Susquehanna eleven miles above Harrisburgh. The Alleghany river, four hundred miles long, from the north-west, and the Monongahela, three hundred miles long, from the south, unite at Pittsburgh to form the Ohio river, which latter flows a short distance in this state. The Youghiogheny is a small river which enters the Monongahela on the east side.

Philadelphia, between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, and Pitts-

burgh, at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, are the most commercial places in the state. The other principal towns are Lancaster, Reading, Harrisburg, Easton York, Carlisle, Alleghany, and Erie.

The governor is chosen by the people for three years, but cannot hold the office more than six years in nine. He must be thirty years of age, and have resided in the state for seven years. The senate consists of thirty-three members, elected by the people for three years, one third being chosen annually. A member must be twenty-five years of age, and have resided four years in the state, and the last year in the district for which he is chosen. All judicial offices are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate. The judges of the supreme court hold their offices for fifteen years. The presiding judges of the court of common pleas hold their offices for ten years. The associate judges of the court of common pleas hold their offices for five years. The secretary of state is appointed by the governor, and holds office during his pleasure. The treasurer is elected annually, by the joint ballot of both houses of the legislature. Every white person of the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in the state for one year next preceding an election, and ten days in the district where he offers his vote, and has paid a state or county tax, enjoys the right of suffrage.

The legislature meets annually at Harrisburg on the first Tuesday of January.

By a splendid course of internal improvements, Pennsylvania has greatly extended and facilitated her trade, but has contracted the largest debt of any state in the Union, which she is abundantly able to discharge, but can only do it by a moderate taxation.

MASSACHUSETTS.

The Plymouth company, soon after its incorporation, in 1606, sent out a ship to make discoveries within the limits of its grant; this ship was taken by the Spaniards. In 1607 they sent out another vessel, with one hundred persons, for the purpose of establishing a colony at the mouth of the Kennebec river, in Maine. Discouraged by the dreary appearance of the country, fifty-five returned in the ship that brought them over; the remainder suffered so much during the winter from hunger and cold, that they all returned the next year to England in a vessel that came to bring them provisions. The company, disappointed and disheartened, for several years made no further attempts to effect a settlement. In 1614, Capt. John Smith, in the service of the Plymouth company, explored the coast from Penobscot river to Cape Cod. He drew a map of his discoveries, and on his return presented it to Prince Charles, who was so much pleased with Smith's glowing description of the country, that he gave it the name of New-England. In 1615 Smith attempted to plant a colony on this part of the coast, but was unsuccessful, and all subsequent attempts to form a settlement failed, until the arduous business was undertaken by men who were influenced by higher motives than the love of gain or of perilous adventure.

The first settlers of New-England were called Puritans, in derision of their peculiar opinions in matters of religion. To escape from persecution they left the land of their fathers, and after a long and stormy voyage arrived at Cape Cod, Nov. 9th, 1620. After exploring the country for several weeks, they fixed upon a spot which they called Plymouth, and there commenced on the 22d of December, 1620, the first permanent settlement in New-England. Feeling the need of some form of civil gov-

ernment among themselves, forty-one of their number, before they landed, solemnly adopted a constitution, and elected John Carver first governor of the colony. Miles Standish was soon after appointed commander-in-chief of the military. At first the colony was not molested by the Indians; Massasoit, the great sachem or chief of the country, was induced, after much hesitation, to enter the village, and after eating and drinking with the governor, made a treaty of friendship with the English, which was faithfully observed for more than fifty years.

The long voyage of the colonists, the severity of the winter, and their numerous privations, brought disease and death among them, which carried off nearly half of their number before the return of spring. But the spirit of persecution in England induced many others to leave their homes and join the infant colony. In the year 1628, John Endicott, with about three hundred others, were sent over to prepare the way for another colony; they began a settlement which they called Salem; this colony received the name of *Massachusetts*, so called from an Indian tribe of this name, in that vicinity. The next year their colony was incorporated under the title of the "Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New-England." This circumstance greatly increased the spirit of emigration. In 1630, about fifteen hundred people arrived at the colonies; among them came Gov. Winthrop, with other officers, and many gentlemen of wealth and distinction, who brought over the charter of the colony; they founded the town of Boston. Among the towns earliest settled in this vicinity, were Charlestown, Dorchester, Watertown, Roxbury, Medford, and Cambridge. Boston soon became the chief town in the colony, and the first general court of Massachusetts was held there, on the 19th of October, 1630. The settlers now endured great hardships from hunger and cold, and great numbers died the first winter; they had few or no accommodations, and their place of worship was under a large tree. For several years following the colony rapidly increased, and the settlements were greatly multiplied. The Massachusetts colonists, in wealth and education, were superior to the settlers of Plymouth; in other respects they were similar. The colonists of Massachusetts, according to their charter, were to assemble four times a year for the election of officers and the enactment of laws; but in 1634, it being inconvenient for them all to assemble, it was agreed by general consent, that the power of making laws should be transferred to a representative body, composed of delegates sent from each of the plantations. In the same year Roger Williams, the minister of Salem, having advanced opinions which gave offence, was banished from the colony; and in 1636 he founded the town of Providence, in Rhode Island.

In 1635 a large number of emigrants arrived in Massachusetts, among whom was Henry Vane. By his engaging deportment he won the hearts of the people, and the year following was made governor of the colony; but his popularity was of short continuance. About this time Ann Hutchinson, a woman of considerable talent, but of more enthusiasm, inculcated opinions which involved the whole colony in contentions; she soon gained great influence, and was supported by Mr. Cotton of Boston, Governor Vane, and others of the first respectability; but at the next election Winthrop instead of Vane was chosen governor; Vane being disappointed returned to England, and afterwards became distinguished in the civil wars of that country.

The settlements in Massachusetts were now so highly esteemed in England, that many distinguished persons, desiring to enjoy a greater degree of civil and religious liberty, determined to leave their native shores; among them was Oliver Cromwell, who, when about to sail, was expressly detained by order of Charles I. The Indians, now feeling that the whites or themselves must soon be exterminated, began to show

their hostility; at this time the Pequots and the Narragansetts, two powerful and warlike tribes, were living within the limits of Connecticut and Rhode Island; between these two tribes there existed the greatest enmity; the Pequots proposed that all animosities should now be laid aside and their forces united against the whites; but the Narragansetts, instead of agreeing to this proposal, made a treaty of friendship with the English, and heartily joined with them in a war against the Pequot tribe. In 1637, the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut, sensible of their danger, combined their forces for the utter extermination of these savage enemies. Captain Mason, with about ninety whites and three hundred friendly Indians, was sent out against them. He attacked one of their largest villages, and after a severe contest, took their fort, set fire to their wigwams, surrounded the town, and shot many of the Indians in their attempts to escape. Of the Indians about five hundred were killed, but only two of the English. Soon after, a decisive battle was fought in a swamp near New-Haven, where the whole tribe had assembled. The swamp was surrounded by the whites, who, after a hot battle, gained a complete victory. Many of the Pequots were killed, many were taken prisoners, and the remainder of the tribe fled westward and joined the Mohawks. This battle terminated the war; the English were not again molested by the Indians for nearly forty years.

It was now ten years since the first settlement of Salem. About twenty-one thousand persons had already arrived in Massachusetts. But a change had taken place in England; the arm of persecution was broken; the puritans had gained the ascendancy, and many, leaving the colonies, returned to England. Notwithstanding this check to the spirit of emigration, the colonies continued to increase with amazing rapidity in wealth and importance. In 1638 Harvard University was founded at Cambridge, and the next year the first printing press in America was there established. The first things printed were the Freeman's Oath, an almanac, and a new version of the Psalms. The means of mental and moral improvement were already considered of the first importance.

In 1643, the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New-Haven, joined in a confederacy for mutual advice and protection they were leagued under the title of "The United Colonies of New-England." Commissioners met twice a year alternately at Hartford, New Haven, Plymouth and Boston, to provide for the interest of the confederated colonies; they were thus united for more than forty years. Rhode Island desired to join the confederacy, but Plymouth would not give her consent. In 1641 the people of New-Hampshire placed themselves under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and in 1652 the province of Maine also came under her protection. This province was first granted to Sir Ferdinand Gorges, in 1634; he established a government over it, which in 1649 had lost its authority, and as Massachusetts claimed the province, as being comprised under her charter, the inhabitants submitted to her jurisdiction.

We have seen that persecution was the grand fault of that age. The puritans themselves had been driven from home on account of their religious peculiarities; yet we soon find them cruelly persecuting others who differed from them in matters of religion. About the year 1650, three Baptists came into Massachusetts from Rhode Island, and having assembled one sabbath morning to worship, they were taken by the public officers and carried to the congregational church, and there kept till the close of the service; soon after this they were tried and sentenced to pay a heavy fine or be publicly whipped. Mr. Holmes, one of the three, refusing to pay the fine, was punished according to the sentence; the friends of one paid his fine, and the other was released. In 1656 a number of Quakers arrived in Massachusetts; their sentiments not agree-

ing with those of the puritans, excited a spirit of persecution, and a law was passed banishing all Quakers from the colony, and imposing the penalty of death upon any who should return after banishment. Four persons who had been banished, returned, and were condemned and executed. They died in triumph, rejoicing in the opportunity they had of evincing the sincerity of their faith. These cruel measures excited the pity of the people, and led some to defend the cause of the Quakers, and finally to embrace their sentiments. The puritans at length discovered their error and repealed their cruel laws; in that age of bigotry the wisest of men had not discovered, that *all men have a right to worship God in whatever manner they please.*

The government of England now began to look with jealousy upon the growing spirit of republicanism in the colonies. In 1663 laws were passed which confined all the trade of commerce between Europe and the colonies to English vessels. Against these restrictions the colonists made frequent complaints, but without effect. In 1664 the king sent over four commissioners to examine into the state of the colonies. They exercised their authority in Plymouth and Rhode Island, but their decisions were little regarded; in Massachusetts their authority was promptly rejected; in New-Hampshire they attempted to excite the people against the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, but their counsel was not regarded; they also made the same attempts in Maine; in Connecticut the commissioners were received with respect and compliance, and for these marks of her loyalty she afterwards received the approbation of the British government. The laws restricting navigation, and the authority assumed by these commissioners from the king, may be considered as the commencement of those aggressions upon the rights of the colonists which led to the revolution.

The whites now began to perceive the designs of the Indians. Their hostility was daily manifested; and in June, 1675, they attacked the town of Swanzey, killed many of its inhabitants, and plundered and set fire to their houses. The troops of the colony soon appeared; but the enemy had fled, setting fire to every building they passed, butchering the whites and fixing their heads upon poles by the side of the road. The troops pursued but could not overtake them. The whole country was now roused to arms. Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, perceiving the augmented forces of the enemy, left his post at Mount Hope and stationed his troops at Pocasset, now called Tiverton; here the English attacked him, but were defeated with the loss of sixteen men. The Narragansetts being now leagued with Philip, the English marched directly into their country, and forced them into a treaty of perpetual peace; this treaty, however, was violated as soon as the whites retired. The colonists now laboured under every possible disadvantage; their settlements were surrounded with thick forests; Indians were living promiscuously among them, professing to be friendly but proving to be enemies; they were exposed at every turn to be shot by their foes. The commissioners perceiving that the Indians had conspired to exterminate the whites, declared war to be just and necessary, and ordered that two thousand men should be raised to oppose the enemy. The Narragansetts being the nearest and most dangerous tribe, the colonists, under the command of Mr. Winslow, governor of Plymouth, marched into their country and pursued them through a deep snow to their stronghold in the midst of a thick swamp. Their fortress was built on an island, and surrounded by a thick brush-fence a rod wide: it had but one narrow entrance, and that well defended. The whites determined to force this passage; the Indians fought bravely; but after a bloody contest the whites entered, set fire to the fort, consuming about six hundred wigwams, with their old men, women and children. About two hundred and thirty of the colonists

were killed or wounded, while the loss of the Indians was at least one thousand slain. During the winter the Indians destroyed many towns and massacred great numbers of the defenceless whites. In the spring the people of Connecticut successfully invaded the country of the Narragansets, took their chief sachem, and delivered him up to the Mohegans, who, being friendly to the whites, put him to death. Philip had now collected a band of his scattered forces, and returned to his old station at Mount Hope. About the 1st of August, Capt. Church attacked him, took his wife and children prisoners, and killed about one hundred and thirty of his men. On this occasion Philip wept bitterly for the loss of his family, and exhibited the noblest feelings of human nature. One of his own men proposed to him to submit to the whites; Philip instantly shot him dead on the spot. A brother of this Indian, enraged at Philip, deserted his ranks and joined the colonists; this man, in a battle shortly after, shot Philip in revenge for his brother's death, and thus fell this great Indian warrior. This event put an end to the war, and the Indians now fled or sued for peace.

Soon after the close of this war the heirs of Gorges urged against Massachusetts their claim to the territory of the province of Maine; to satisfy these claims Massachusetts paid the sum of £1250 In 1680 New-Hampshire was separated from Massachusetts, and became a distinct colony. The government of England, dissatisfied with the state of affairs in the colonies, sent over Edward Randolph to secure the enforcement of the obnoxious laws relating to commerce He brought a message from the king, desiring the colonial governments to send agents to England, authorized to act with full power in behalf of the colonies. The people of Massachusetts suspected that the design of this movement was to get away their charter and bring the government of the colony under the immediate control of the king. The agents, therefore, who were appointed, were instructed, on no consideration to deliver up the charter.

In 1684 the government of England declared the charter of Massachusetts to be no longer valid, and in 1686 Sir Edmund Andross was appointed governor of the colony. This was highly displeasing to the people of Massachusetts; they felt that a tyrant was now placed over them. The governor immediately imposed restraints upon the press, and broke in upon the religious and domestic regulations of the people; the titles of land given under the old charter were declared void, and exorbitant prices were demanded for securing new ones. These proceedings of the government provoked the people to madness, and they were ready to seize on the first favourable opportunity for redress. In 1689 news came from England that William, prince of Orange, had landed at Torbay, and was contending for the crown. The people of Massachusetts, inspired with hope of deliverance, at once flew to arms, arrested and imprisoned their oppressors and restored their former magistrates. The next arrival from England brought word that the Prince of Orange had gained possession of the throne, under the title of William III. This intelligence was received with great joy throughout New-England.

In 1692 William granted to Massachusetts a new charter, which extended her jurisdiction over the provinces of Plymouth, Maine, and Nova Scotia. By this charter the king reserved to himself the right of appointing the governor of the colony. On the 14th of May, Sir William Phipps, the first royal governor, arrived at Boston with the new charter, which in many respects was not so acceptable to the people as the old one. By an express provision the new charter granted entire liberty of conscience to all excepting Roman Catholics.

About this time the colonies were greatly harassed by the French of Canada, combined with the northern and eastern Indians. A fleet was

fitted out under the command of Sir William Phipps, to proceed against Quebec, and land forces were raised to march directly to Montreal. These movements were unsuccessful, and, instead of relieving the colonists, increased their burden of debt. In the midst of these calamities New-England was thrown into panic and distress by the strange delusions of *witchcraft*. A few years before, in England, persons called witches were tried, condemned, and put to death in great numbers. Many respectable men had declared their belief that some persons were actually possessed with evil spirits; and the people of New-England, therefore, were prepared to receive with the utmost credulity the absurdities of this imaginary witchcraft. The infatuation had extended to all classes in society. Twenty persons had been put to death, and more than a hundred were in prison awaiting trial, when the magistrates, finding that their own families were exposed to the same accusations, began to suspect that it was all a delusion. Those in prison were released, and the witches soon fled.

The English settlements were still harassed by the French and Indians. Peace followed for a few years, but war breaking out anew between England and France, hostilities at once commenced between their colonies. In February, 1704, the town of Deerfield, Mass., was attacked in the night by the Indians and French; the town was set on fire, and the inhabitants killed or carried prisoners to Canada. In 1711 a large fleet, under the command of Admiral Walker, left England for the purpose of subduing Canada. Having entered the river St. Lawrence, and disregarding the advice of the American pilots, he was driven upon the rocks and many of his ships dashed to pieces. This calamity defeated the object of the expedition; the Indians continued their depredations upon the colonies till 1713, when peace was concluded between England and France. In 1716 Samuel Shute was appointed governor of the colony; during his administration much contention prevailed between him and the house of representatives, respecting the governor's salary. The house contended for the right of rewarding him according to his services, while the king had ordered the governor to establish a permanent salary. This contest continued for many years, and was finally settled by a vote of the house of representatives, to grant a definite sum for the pay of the governor.

In 1744 war was again declared between England and France. During the time of peace the French had strongly fortified the port of Louisburgh on Cape Breton; this port gave French privateers every advantage for ruining the important fisheries on that coast, and for breaking up the trade of the colonies. A plan was concieved by one of the colonists for taking this port, and communicated to the governor of Massachusetts. Having imposed an oath of secrecy upon the members of the general court, the governor made known the plan to them; at first the enterprise was considered as altogether hazardous and impracticable, but when made known to the people, all hands and hearts were ready for the undertaking.

An army of more than four thousand men, under the command of William Pepperell, was soon landed on the island, while a fleet under Commodore Warren blockaded the harbour; a detachment marched round to the north-east part of the harbour in the night, and set fire to the buildings containing naval stores, tar, pitch, wine, brandy &c.; the flames and smoke pouring into the grand battery so terrified the French, that they spiked their guns and fled to the city. The next morning the New-England troops took possession of the battery; they spent fourteen nights up to their knees in mud and water, drawing their cannon through a marsh, from the landing to the camp, and they then turned them with great effect upon the city. The fleet in the harbour captured a French 64 gun ship, laden with stores, and five hundred and sixty men for the relief of the garrison. This threw the besieged into great distress, and with other adverse events, led the French on the 16th of June to surrender the city.

This expedition displayed the spirit of New-England, and excited the jealousy of Great Britain. The next summer a large French fleet of forty ships appeared on the coast, which spread great alarm through the colonies; but the French, after many serious disasters, which destroyed nearly half their fleet, returned to France. In 1748 peace was concluded, and Cape Breton was restored to the French.

In no state of the Union has agriculture been more improved than in Massachusetts; she is also extensively engaged in the fisheries. In its shipping Massachusetts is the second state in the Union, being inferior only to New-York. The face of the country is diversified; the south-eastern part is mostly level; through Berkshire county pass two mountain ranges, the Taghkannic on the western border of the state, and between the Housatonic and Connecticut rivers the Green mountain range, here called Hoosic mountains. Mount Holyoke, near Northampton, is more than twelve hundred feet above the level of the sea, and Wachusett mountain in Princeton is an isolated summit, from two to three thousand feet high; Saddle mountain, in the Taghkannic range, in the north-west corner of the state, is four thousand feet high, and Mount Washington, in the same range, in the south-western part of the state, is about three thousand feet high.

The government of Massachusetts consists of a governor, lieutenant-governor, senate, and house of representatives; they are elected annually by the people; the governor must have resided seven years in the state, and be worth a freehold of 1000 pounds, and declare his belief in the Christian religion; the lieutenant-governor must possess the same qualification. A council of nine persons besides the lieutenant-governor are elected annually by the joint ballot of the legislature, and not more than two can be chosen in one congressional district; they rank next to the lieutenant-governor. The senate contains forty members, who must possess a freehold of 300 pounds, and a personal estate of 600 pounds, and must have resided in the state for five years immediately preceding the election. The house of representatives contains three hundred and fifty-six members, who must possess a freehold of 100 pounds in the town for which he is chosen, or rateable estate to the value of 250 pounds. The judges and various other officers, as attorney general, &c., are appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the council; the judges hold their office during good behaviour; the secretary, treasurer, and receiver-general are appointed annually, by the joint ballot of both houses of the legislature. Every male citizen over twenty-one years of age (excepting paupers and persons under guardianship), who has resided in the state one year, and in the town or district in which he may claim to vote six months next preceding an election, and shall have paid a tax in the commonwealth within two years, or shall have been exempted from taxation, enjoys the right of suffrage.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

The first permanent settlement in New-Hampshire was made by the English in 1623. John Mason and Ferdinand Gorges obtained from the New-England company a grant of this territory, and sent over a few pioneers, who made new settlements on the west side of the Piscataqua river—one near the mouth, called Little Harbour, the other further up the river, at Cocheco, now called Dover. Portsmouth was settled in 1631, and in 1638 a settlement was made at Exeter, by the Rev. John Wheelwright, who had before purchased the land of the Indians. Soon after the settlement of Exeter the inhabitants of that town organised a gov-

ernment for themselves. For several years the government of each town was distinct and independent; but finding that they were very much exposed to the ravages of the Indians, they placed themselves, in 1641, under the protection of Massachusetts. During the wars with Philip these feeble settlements suffered extremely from the barbarous assaults of the enemy.

In 1679 New-Hampshire was separated from Massachusetts, and made a distinct province. Its government consisted of a president and council, appointed by the king, and a house of representatives, chosen by the people. The assembly held its first session at Portsmouth, in 1680, when a law was passed, declaring that "no act, imposition, law, or ordinance, should be imposed upon the inhabitants, but such as should be made by the assembly, and approved by the president and council." About this time a contest commenced which continued with more or less severity for many years. Robert Mason arrived at Portsmouth and laid claim to a large part of the territory; his claims were rejected, and returning to England, he induced the king to commission Edward Cranfield as the commander-in-chief of New-Hampshire; on his arrival he also met with opposition; he rendered himself contemptible and was obliged to leave the country. Mr. Waldron, a principal man in the colony, was very active in opposing the claims of Mason and Cranfield. In 1689 the people sent a petition to the king, praying that they might again be annexed to Massachusetts; the petition was refused, and the petitioners were obliged to submit to a separate government. Samuel Allen, who had purchased Mason's claim, was made governor of the colony; he at once renewed the old contests respecting lands; suits were laid against some of the principal landholders, but the court usually gave a decision in their favour.

Major Waldron and others, of Dover, had by repeated acts of injustice roused the indignation of the Indians, who concerted a shrewd scheme for destroying the town. In consequence of the dangers to which they were exposed, the inhabitants had fortified several houses to which they repaired every night to sleep; the Indians sent several women, who were considered friendly to the whites, to seek lodging with them; they were instructed to throw open the doors of these houses in the night, and give a signal to the Indians, who were to be concealed in the immediate vicinity. The plan was successful. At midnight the signal was given, and the savages rushed into the houses; their vengeance was first directed towards Waldron, who, after bravely defending himself, was overpowered and treated with the greatest barbarity. He was thrown upon a table, and each of the savages in turn gashing his breast with their knives, exclaimed, "Thus I cross out my account." At length they put an end to his sufferings by rolling him from the table upon the point of his own sword. Many houses were plundered and burned; other towns were attacked, hundreds were killed, and many carried captive to Canada and sold to the French. These cruel depredations continued till 1697, when peace was again restored. In 1703 the colonies were again involved in a long and bloody war. In 1719 Londonderry was settled by emigrants from Ireland. In 1722 war broke out again with the French and Indians; During this war Capt. John Lovewell distinguished himself in fighting the Indians; in one of his expeditions he surprised a company of ten Indians who were asleep round a fire; the Indians jumping up, one after another, were shot on the spot, except one, who, attempting to escape, was seized by Lovewell's dog, and shared the same fate with the others. In another expedition Lovewell and most of his men were killed by the Indians, under the command of the famous Paugus. In 1746 the owners of Mason's title urged again their old claim; but meeting with no success they yielded, and settled this unhappy con-

test by an honourable appropriation of their lands. In their grants they provided for the liberal support of the ministers of the gospel, for building churches, promoting education, and internal improvements. The people of New-Hampshire now enjoyed a good degree of prosperity and repose, which was not interrupted till the opening of the French war.

The recent geological survey of this state by Dr. Jackson, has resulted in the discovery of extensive copper and iron mines. A copper mine in Coos Co. yields an ore of thirty-three per cent. of pure copper. In different parts are some picturesque lakes and fine waterfalls; and the beauty and grandeur of the scenery presented by its mountains and lakes has caused it to be denominated "the Switzerland of America." The principal mountain peaks are Grand Monadnock, toward the south-west part of the state, 3254 feet above the level of the sea; Sunapee mountain, near Sunapee lake; Kearsarge mountain, between Sutton and Salisbury, 2461 feet; Carr's mountain, in Ellsworth; Moosehillock, in Benton, 4636 feet high, and Mount Washington, the highest peak of the White mountains, 6428 feet high. The Notch in the White mountains is justly regarded as a curiosity, being in some places not more than twenty-two feet wide, with lofty precipices on both sides, affording some of the wildest and grandest scenery in nature; a road passes through this notch, being the only place in which the mountain can be passed.

The constitution was formed in 1784, and in 1792 was altered to its present form. The governor is elected annually by the people on the second Tuesday in March. He must have resided in the state for seven years next preceding his election, be thirty-five years of age, and possess property to the amount of £500, one half of which must be a freehold within the state. The council consists of five members, chosen by the people; the legislature, consisting of the senate and house of representatives, is denominated the general court of New-Hampshire; the senate consists of twelve members, elected annually by the people; the house of representatives consists of two hundred and fifty members, elected annually by the people. All judicial officers are nominated and appointed by the governor and council, and hold their offices during good behaviour, but are removable by the governor, with the consent of the council, at the representation of both houses of the legislature; no judicial officer can hold office after he is seventy years of age. The secretary and treasurer are elected by the joint ballot of both houses of the legislature. Every male inhabitant of twenty-one years of age, or over, excepting paupers, and persons excused from paying taxes at their own request, have the right of suffrage.

RHODE-ISLAND.

This is the smallest state in territory in the Union, being only about forty-nine miles long, and twenty-nine broad. The first settlement was made in 1636 by Roger Williams, who was banished from Massachusetts, as before mentioned. He obtained a tract of land from the Indians at a place called Mooshausic, and began to build a town, which, in acknowledgement of God's goodness to him, he called Providence. In 1643 Rhode-Island petitioned to be admitted into the celebrated Union of the New-England colonies; Plymouth declaring the settlements of this colony to be within the limits of her territory would not consent to the petition; but after a warm discussion between the commissioners, it was voted that Rhode Island should enjoy all the benefits of the Union, provided she would submit to the jurisdiction of Plymouth; spurning the idea of such submission, she maintained her independence, and was not

associated with the other colonies. The same year Roger Williams went to England and obtained a grant of the territory, and a permission for the people of the colony to organize a civil government. In 1647 delegates from the several towns met at Portsmouth, adopted a constitution, and framed a code of laws; the executive power was placed in the hands of a president or governor, and four assistants.

In 1663 King Charles granted a charter to Rhode-Island, similar in its provisions to that of Connecticut. The legislature passed a law that every Christian sect, except Roman Catholics, should enjoy all the privileges of freemen; a law was also passed, that the property of Quakers who refused to take up arms in defence of the colony, should be seized by the public officers; but this law not being agreeable to the people was never enforced. The charter government of this colony was dissolved by Andross while he was governor of New-England, but was resumed again directly after his imprisonment. Rhode-Island, on account of her just and benevolent treatment of the Indians, was seldom molested by their depredations.

The executive power of the state is vested in a governor, elected annually by the people. In case of the inability of the governor to serve, through death, impeachment, or absence from the state, his place is supplied by the lieutenant-governor, elected also annually by the people; or in case of the inability of both, the office shall be filled by the president of the senate. The senate consists of the lieutenant-governor, and one member from each town or city in the state, and is presided over by the governor, or in his absence by the lieutenant-governor, who has no vote excepting on an equal division of the members. The secretary of state is also secretary of the senate, and in the absence of the governor and lieutenant-governor, presides over the body until a president is chosen. The house of representatives consists of not to exceed seventy-two members. Each town or city is entitled to at least one member, provided that no town or city shall elect more than one-sixth of the entire number. The present ratio of representation is one member to every 1530 inhabitants, and each fraction exceeding one half is entitled to one representative. The present number of members is sixty-nine. The judicial power of the state is vested in one supreme court, and such inferior courts as the general assembly may from time to time ordain. The judges of the supreme court are elected by the general assembly in grand committee, and may be dismissed by a majority of all the members elect of each house separately. Every person a citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years, who has resided, and has had a home in the state for one year, and in the town or city where he offers his vote for six months next preceding an election, and real estate in said town or city to the amount of $134, or renting for $7 above all incumbrances whatsoever, is entitled to the right of suffrage; or if his property is in another town or city in the state than that in which he resides, he must produce a certificate to that effect from the clerk of the city or town in which it lies, dated within ten days previous to the election, and showing that the deed, if there be any, has been recorded for ninety days; the name of the voter must have been legally enrolled for one year next previous to the election in the town or city where he offers his vote, and he must have paid a town or city tax of one dollar, and have been enrolled in the militia, and have performed military duty; a residence at any garrison or naval station in the state does not give a legal residence. This constitution went into operation May 3d, 1843. Rhode Island bore an honourable part in the revolutionary war; and General Greene, one of her citizens, was inferior, as a general officer, only to Washington.

CONNECTICUT.

The territory now constituting the state of Connecticut, was granted by the Plymouth company in England to lords Say and Seal, Brooke and others, in 1631. About this time Mr. Winslow, governor of Plymouth, visited the country along the Connecticut river, and finding the Indians friendly, and desirous of trading with the whites, he selected a spot for a trading-house. The Dutch at New-York, anticipating the designs of Winslow, sent a company to erect a fort at Hartford, to prevent the English from forming a settlement in that region. In 1635 a number of families from Massachusetts began settlements at Wethersfield and Windsor; the next winter, some of them being destitute of provisions, returned to their friends in Massachusetts. In October of the same year, John Winthrop arrived from England, with orders from the company who now owned the territory, to build a fort at the mouth of the river. In the summer of 1635, the Rev. Mr. Hooker and about one hundred members belonging to his congregation, left Massachusetts and laid the foundation of Hartford. In their long journey through the wilderness they had no guide but their compass, no cover but the heavens, and their principal food was the milk of the cows, which they drove before them. The Indians in Connecticut were very numerous; thirty years after its settlement there were twenty Indians to one white man, and the first settlers suffered every kind of barbarity from these savages. In 1637 the troops from this colony distinguished themselves for bravery and fortitude in the war against the Pequots, an account of which has already been given in the history of Massachusetts. During this war, the Rev. John Davenport, Mr. Eaton, and other gentlemen of wealth and respectability from England, arrived at Boston. In 1638 they founded the colony of New-Haven at Quinnipiac, the Indian name of that region. The first sabbath after their arrival Mr. Davenport preached to the colony under a large oak tree; a day of fasting and prayer was appointed, and at the close of it they all bound themselves by a solemn covenant, "to be governed in all things, both civil and religious, by the rules and principles of the Bible."

In 1639 the people of this colony met in a large barn and adopted a constitution. It provided that none but members of some church be permitted to vote or take any part in the government; that all voters should meet once a year to choose the officers of the colony; and that the word of God should be their only rule, as well in civil as in religious affairs. The same year the people of Wethersfield and Windsor assembled at Hartford, and adopted a constitution for the colony of Connecticut, which in many respects was similar to that of New-Haven. About this time George Fenwick and others began a settlement at the mouth of the river, which, in honour of lords Say and Seal, and Brooke, was called Saybrook; for many years they enacted their own laws and made their own regulations, but in 1664 this town became a part of the Connecticut colony.

On the restoration of Charles II., John Winthrop, governor of Connecticut, was sent to England to obtain from the king a royal charter for that colony. He presented to Charles a ring of great value, which his father, Charles I., had given to Winthrop's grandmother. Pleased with the gift, the king granted a charter very liberal in its privileges, and which confirmed all the provisions of their constitution. The charter included New-Haven; but that colony, not willing to give up its entire independence, did not submit to the regulations of the charter until 1665, when the two colonies were united. In 1686, James II., dissatisfied with the spirit of liberty which prevailed in the colonies, ordered the people of

Connecticut to surrender their charter. Sir Edmund Andross, his agent, and at that time governor of New-England, finding the people of that colony unwilling to submit to the king's order, marched with a band of troops to Hartford. The legislature was now in session; Sir Edmund entered the court-house and demanded the charter; the matter was debated until evening, when the charter was brought forth and laid on the table; the excitement was great, and the house was crowded; in the heat of the discussion the candles were all suddenly extinguished, and when they were relighted the charter was gone; amid the darkness and confusion a Captain Wadsworth had seized it, and, escaping from the house, concealed it in the hollow of an oak tree.

When James II. was driven from the throne, King William confirmed the charter, which thenceforth became the basis of the government, until the formation of the new constitution in 1818. In 1692 Col. Fletcher was appointed governor of New-York, and authorised to command the militia of Connecticut. He proceeded to Hartford and ordered the train-bands to be assembled, and attempted to read to them his commission, but Captain Wadsworth, the senior officer of the militia, ordered the drums to beat; Fletcher commanded silence, and again attempted to read, when Wadsworth exclaimed, "drum, drum, I say," and turning to Fletcher he said, "if it is attempted again I will make the sun shine through you in a moment." Fletcher desisted, and returned the following night to New-York. Here was something of the spirit of the American revolution. The king of England afterward gave the command of the militia to the governor of Connecticut, with the reservation, that in time of war a certain number should be placed under the orders of Fletcher. Until 1698 the assembly sat in one house, but was then divided into two. In 1700 Yale college was founded at Saybrook, but was subsequently removed to New-Haven, and was named in honour of Elihu Yale, a merchant of London, an early benefactor. In 1708, by order of the legislature, the ministers and delegates of the churches assembled at Saybrook, and formed the celebrated Saybrook Platform, which has ever since formed the ecclesiastical constitution of the churches of Connecticut.

The government of the state is vested in a governor, a lieutenant-governor, who is president of the senate, and a senate and house of representatives. The senate consists of not less than eighteen, nor more than twenty-four members. Most of the towns choose two representatives. The legislature, called the general assembly, holds its session annually, alternately at Hartford and New-Haven. All white citizens of twenty-one years of age, who have resided in the town where they vote six months previous to the election, who have a freehold estate of the annual value of seven dollars, or who have performed military duty for one year next preceding an election, are entitled to the right of suffrage. The governor, lieutenant-governor, senate, and representatives, are elected annually by the people, on the first Monday of April. The supreme court consists of five judges, appointed by the legislature, and hold their offices during good behaviour, or until they are seventy years of age. These judges hold separately a court twice a year, in each county; and all the judges together hold one court annually in each county, as a court of errors. The county courts consist of one chief judge, and two associate judges, appointed annually by the legislature.

The shore of Connecticut is penetrated by numerous bays and creeks, which afford many harbours. The principal sea-ports are New-London, New-Haven, Stonington, and Bridgeport on the coast, and Middletown in the interior. The harbour of New-London is the best in the state, and one of the best in the United States; it is spacious and safe, has a depth of thirty feet of water, and is not obstructed by ice in the winter.

NEW-JERSEY.

New-Jersey was first settled by the Danes, at Bergen, in 1624. Shortly after, a few Dutch families settled on the western shore of New-York bay; six years after, the English began a settlement at Elsingburgh, on the eastern side of the Delaware river; this settlement was soon broken up by the Swedes, who erected a fort on the same spot to guard the river.

The Swedes continued to multiply their settlements until 1655, when they were conquered by the Dutch. It has been stated in the history of New-York, that the Dutch claimed all the territory between the Connecticut and the Delaware; the same territory was also claimed by the king of England, who, in 1614, sent over a fleet which completely subdued the Dutch. The same year the Duke of York, to whom the king had granted this territory, conveyed all the lands between the Delaware and Hudson to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret. These possessions were called New-Jersey, in honour of Sir George Carteret, who had been governor of the island of Jersey; they appointed Philip Carteret governor; he arrived at Elizabethtown, in 1665, and established a government over the colony, just and liberal in its principles.

For several years the colony was in a flourishing state; but at length those settlers who had purchased their land of the Indians, before the English took possession, refused to pay rent for it to the government. In 1672, the discontented party rose in rebellion; their complaints were made known to the proprietors in England, when some concessions were made, and some privileges granted, which satisfied the people. About this time Lord Berkley granted all his claims in the colony to Edward Billinge. In 1676, the territory was divided into East-Jersey and West-Jersey; the latter was assigned to Billinge—the former to Sir George Carteret. Three years before this division was made, the Dutch again took possession of this territory, but retained it only a few months. In consequence of this conquest by the Dutch, Sir Edmund Andross declared that Berkley and Carteret had lost all claim to the territory; in 1678, he therefore extended his tyrannical sway over New-Jersey.

He imposed taxes upon the people, seized and imprisoned all those who would not submit to his authority; the colonies complained to the duke, and the case was at length referred to commissioners, and decided in favour of the people. Billinge had committed the management of affairs in West-Jersey to a board of trustees, one of whom was William Penn. To Penn and his associates, the territory of East-Jersey was also granted, in 1608, and Robert Barclay was appointed governor of East-Jersey for life; but peace and tranquillity were not yet secured. There had been so many owners of the land, and so many changes in the government, that no one could tell with certainty whether he had a good title to his land or not; great disorder prevailed, and this state of confusion continued till 1702, when the right of government was surrendered to the queen of England.

The two divisions were now reunited, under the old name of New-Jersey. Lord Cornbury was appointed governor, the same governor exercising jurisdiction over the provinces of New-Jersey and New-York. In 1738, the king, in answer to a petition of the people of New-Jersey, appointed a separate governor over that colony; the office was first conferred upon Lewis Morris, under whose administration the people enjoyed peace and prosperity. The population was then forty thousand.

The constitution of this state was formed in 1776. The state for several years, during the Revolutionary war, was occupied by the American and British armies, and several important battles were fought in its territory, particularly those of Trenton, of Princeton, and of Monmouth,

and the inhabitants bore their full share of toil and suffering during that memorable period.

The government consists of a governor, council, and house of assembly. The governor is elected annually, by the joint ballot of the council and the assembly. The council consists of eighteen members, elected annually by the people. A councillor must have resided one year in the state, and possess property of £1000 value in the county for which he is chosen. The council elects from its body a president, who performs the duties appertaining to a lieutenant-governor. The assembly is composed of fifty-eight members, elected annually by the people. A member must have resided one year in the state, and possess property to the amount of £500, within the county for which he was elected. The judges of the supreme court are elected for seven years, and of the inferior courts for five years, by the joint ballot of the council and assembly. All persons of the age of twenty-one years, who are worth £50 proclamation money, and have resided in the state one year immediately preceding an election, enjoy the right of suffrage.

DELAWARE.

Delaware was first settled in 1627, by a number of Swedes and Fins, who, at the instance of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, emigrated to America. They landed at Cape Henlopen, which on account of its beauty, they called Paradise Point; the Delaware they named Swedeland Stream.

Afterwards a settlement was made at Tinicum, and became their seat of government. John Printz was their first governor; and they erected a number of forts along the river to protect their settlements from the Dutch, who were now settling on the eastern side. In 1641, the Dutch crossed the river and built a fort at New-Castle; the Swedes claimed the territory, and remonstrated against these proceedings. Risingh, the second Swedish governor, with a band of thirty men, visited the fort under pretence of friendship; being admitted, and kindly treated by the Dutch, he seized the opportunity to take possession of the fort. This act of treachery exasperated the Dutch governor of New-York, and he came with a fleet of seven ships and took possession of all the Swedish settlements; many of the Swedes were seized and transported to Holland; the remainder submitted to the Dutch. In 1664, the English conquered the Dutch, and the settlement on the Delaware continued under the English governor of New-York, until 1682; at this time, William Penn obtained a grant of the several tracts of land which now constitute the state of Delaware. They were called the "territories," and for many years were under the government of Pennsylvania.

Delaware has no state debt, but possesses funds, exclusive of the school fund, to the amount of $339,686. Wilmington is the largest and most commercial place in the state. Vessels requiring fourteen feet of water can come to its wharves; it has considerable trade, particularly in flour, and has several ships engaged in the whale-fishery. The other principal towns are Dover and New-Castle.

The present constitution of the state was adopted in 1831. The governor is chosen for four years, and is ever afterwards ineligible. The senate consists of three members chosen from each county, for the term of four years. The representatives consist of seven for each county, chosen for the term of two years. The legislature meets once in two years, on the first Tuesday in January. The elections are held on the second Tuesday of November. Every male citizen over twenty-two years of

age, who has resided one year in the state, and the last month in the county in which he offers his vote, and has paid a tax, has the right of suffrage; and if he be between twenty-one and twenty-two years, and is otherwise qualified, he may vote without the payment of a tax. The state treasurer is chosen biennially by the legislature; and in case of his death, resignation, &c., the governor fills the office until the next session of the legislature. He is to settle annually with the legislature or a committee thereof, which is to be appointed at every biennial session. The judicial power of the state is exercised by four common law judges and a chancellor. The judges are appointed by the governor, during good behavior. Of the four law judges, one is chief justice and the others are associates. The chief justice and chancellor may be appointed for any part of the state, but there must be one associate judge for each county. A court consists of the chief justice and two associates; but no associate judge is permitted to sit in his own county. The legislature has power to establish such inferior courts as may be necessary. The chancellor exercises the powers of a court of chancery, and with all the judges, of a court of appeals.

The constitution provides that no act of incorporation shall be passed without a vote of two-thirds of the legislature, unless it be the renewal of an existing incorporation; and all acts are to contain a power of revocation by the legislature. No act hereafter passed shall be in force for more than twenty years, without a re-enactment by the legislature. No person belonging to the military, naval, or marine service of the United States can gain such a residence as will entitle him to vote, by being stationed at any military or naval post in the state.

MARYLAND.

We have seen that the first settlement of Massachusetts and Rhode-Island was owing to religious persecution. The same spirit prevailed against the Roman catholics, which led to the settlement of Maryland. In 1632, George Calvert, called Lord Baltimore, a distinguished member of that sect, applied to Charles I. for a grant of territory north of Virginia, for the purpose of establishing a settlement on the principles of religious liberty; before the grant had passed the royal seal, he died. About two months after, the territory was granted in the name of Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore's eldest son and heir. In honour of the queen Maria, the colony was called Maryland. Lord Baltimore appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, governor of the province; he, with about two hundred catholic emigrants, arrived at the mouth of the Potomac, in 1634; after exploring the country for a few weeks, they purchased the village of Yoamaco of the Indians, and named it St. Marys. Here they found comfortable habitations; and the soil being somewhat cultivated, they had a sufficient supply of provisions.

Many circumstances favoured the settlement of Maryland; although Lord Baltimore and his family were catholics, and had been severely oppressed and persecuted in England, they granted equal protection to all Christian denominations in their new colony, while persecution prevailed in the northern provinces. The soil and climate were very inviting; the Indians were perfectly friendly; and the people were permitted to make their own laws. These things led to the rapid increase of the colony.

The first assembly, which met soon after they arrived, was composed of all the freemen in the colony. This mode of legislation was soon altered. In 1639, the "House of Assembly" was made up of representatives chosen by the people, together with the governor and secretary; these all met in the same room. A change took place, in 1560, by which this

body was divided into a lower house, consisting of representatives, and an upper house, consisting of persons appointed by the proprietor.

The peace of this colony was soon disturbed by William Clayborne. By circulating false reports among the Indians, he excited them to a war, which involved the colony in much distress for several years. Clayborne was tried and condemned, but before the day of his execution, he made his escape. But the contending parties in England soon occasioned a civil war in the colony. The catholics were overpowered, and an act was passed declaring them without the protection of law; laws were also enacted against the quakers. At the restoration of Charles II., in 1660, Cecil Calvert recovered his right to the province, and his son, Philip Calvert, was appointed governor, and harmony was again restored in the colony. At this time the population of Maryland was about twelve thousand.

Potomac river, which divides this state from Virginia, is five hundred miles long, and navigable about two hundred and ninety-five miles, from the mouth of Chesapeake bay to Washington city. It is seven and a half miles wide at its mouth in Chesapeake bay, and one and a quarter miles at Alexandria. Susquehanna river enters the head of Chesapeake bay in this state, one and a quarter miles wide at its mouth, and navigable only five miles; above which, it is obstructed by falls and rapids. The Patapsco, though a small river, is navigable fourteen miles for large ships to Baltimore, and affords above much water-power. The Patuxent is one hundred and ten miles long, and navigable for fifty miles for vessels of two hundred and fifty tons burden. The other rivers are Elk, Sassafras, Chester, Choptank, Nanticoke, and Pocomoke, which flow by broad mouths into the east side of Chesapeake bay.

Two of the greatest works of internal improvement in the United States have been projected and commenced in Maryland; the first is the Chesapeake and Ohio canal, which commences at Georgetown, D. C., and is designed to extend three hundred and forty-one and a quarter miles to Pittsburgh. The Baltimore and Ohio railroad is designed to extend from Baltimore to the Ohio river at Wheeling, three hundred and sixty miles, and is the second great work.

The constitution was formed in 1776, but has been frequently amended, since that time. The state is divided into three districts, the eastern, southern, and north-western. The governor is elected for three years, by the people from the districts alternately, so that each district is represented in the gubernatorial chair for one term in each period of nine years. He must have resided in the district for which he is elected for three years next preceding the election. The senate consists of twenty-one members elected for six years, by the people; one third of the number being elected every two years; and the senators must have resided in the city or county for which they are chosen for three years next preceding the election. The house of delegates consists of seventy members elected by the people, and must have resided in the county for which they are chosen for one year next preceding the election. All judges are appointed by the governor, with advice and consent of the senate, and hold their offices during good behavior. Every white male citizen over twenty-one years of age, who has resided in the state one year next preceding an election, and for six months in the city or county where he offers his vote, enjoys the right of suffrage. The legislature meets annually at Annapolis, on the last Monday in December.

NORTH-CAROLINA.

Sir Robert Heath, in 1630, obtained a grant of a large extent of territory south of Virginia, which was called Carolina, but under this grant, no colony was planted. About the year 1645, a number of persons fled from persecution in Virginia, and settled north of Albemarle sound, and for many years they lived in the enjoyment of freedom and plenty. In 1664, another settlement was made near Cape Fear, by a band of adventurers from New-England. A few years after, it was greatly increased by a company of emigrants from Barbadoes. They purchased the lands of the Indians, but had no other title. As Sir Robert Heath had not complied with the conditions of his title, in the year 1663 the same territory was granted to Lord Clarendon and seven others; they now organized a government on the most liberal principles, and held out many inducements to emigrants. Mr. Drummond was appointed governor of the settlement on the Albemarle.

At this time the celebrated John Locke had gained great reputation in England for his political writings. At the request of Lord Clarendon, he prepared a constitution of government for the province. It was very different from the constitutions of the other colonies. It provided that the governor should hold his office during life, and that an hereditary nobility should be created. This constitution was adopted, but was not pleasing to the people, and was the occasion of much disorder in the colony. In 1671, William Sayle commenced a settlement, which, in honour of King Charles, he called Charleston. This town, being well situated for commerce, rapidly increased in population; many came from Clarendon county, which embraced the settlements about Cape Fear. After the death of Sayle, Sir John Yeamans was appointed governor of Charleston; the settlements under this government were now called South-Carolina, in distinction from those at Albemarle, which were called North-Carolina. At length disorders began to arise in the northern colony; these were greatly increased under the administration of Seth Sothel, one of the proprietors, who had been appointed governor. The people, after enduring for six years his cruel oppression, banished him from the colony. In 1793, a change took place, and the government of each colony afterwards consisted of a governor, council, and house of representatives.

North-Carolina was not long free from the calamities of an Indian war. In 1712, the Tuscaroras, fired with a love of country, and a spirit of revenge for past injuries, formed a plan for destroying the whites. At this time many French and German protestants were living in the interior; one night twelve hundred savage warriors, having concerted a plan, entered the houses of the inhabitants, and murdered men, women, and children, without mercy; they flew from village to village, leaving nothing behind them but a horrid scene of common slaughter. Colonel Barnwell, with about one thousand men, arrived from South-Carolina, subdued the enemy, and restored peace; but hostilities were soon renewed by the Indians. Colonel Moore was then immediately sent with a strong force from the southern colony, when he defeated the savages, and took eight hundred prisoners. The next year the Tuscaroras abandoned their country, and joined the confederacy of the Five Nations in New-York.

The two Carolinas were still under the same proprietors, and troubles and disputes often arose between the rulers and the people. In 1729, the court of England declared the old charter forfeited, and the king immediately established a distinct government over each colony. The people of North-Carolina, finding the soil in the interior much better than that near the coast, began to penetrate the wilderness; and the colony, under wise governors, enjoyed a high degree of prosperity.

The whole eastern coast of North-Carolina consists of a ridge of sand and low islands, separated from the mainland in some parts by narrow, and in other parts by broad sounds and bays, entered by various inlets, generally shallow and of dangerous navigation. Ocracoke inlet is the only one north of Cape Fear, through which vessels pass. The western part of the state is an elevated table land, and in some places rises into rugged mountains. In Yancey county is the highest land in the United States east of the Rocky Mountains. Black Mountain is six thousand four hundred and seventy-six feet above the level of the sea, which is two hundred and forty-two feet higher than the highest peak of the celebrated White Mountains in N. H. Roan Mountain is six thousand thirty-eight feet high, and Grandfather Mountain is five thousand five hundred and fifty-six feet high. It is but recently that the elevation of these mountains has been correctly ascertained. In the low country the climate is somewhat unhealthy, but in the elevated parts it is salubrious. In the northern part, extending into Virginia, is the Great Dismal swamp, thirty miles long and ten broad, containing one hundred and fifty thousand acres; and on the Virginian line is lake Drummond, fifteen miles in circumference. Between Albemarle and Pamlico sounds is the Alligator or Little Dismal swamp, which also has a lake in the centre. It is computed that there are two millions five hundred thousand acres of swamp within the state, which are capable of being drained, at a moderate expense, and made to produce cotton, tobacco, rice, and Indian corn.

Gold and iron are found in this state. The gold region lies on both sides of the Blue Ridge, and extends to the east of the Yadkin river. Many persons have commenced digging for gold, and a considerable amount is sent annually to the mint of the United States.

The governor of this state is elected by the qualified voters for the house of assembly, once in two years, but cannot hold the office more than four years in six. He must be thirty-five years of age, possess a freehold estate to the value of £1000, and have resided in the state for five years. The council consists of seven persons, elected for two years by the general assembly. The senate is composed of fifty members, elected once in two years by the people. A senator must have a residence, and possession for one year previous to the election, of three hundred acres of land, in the county for which he is chosen. The house of assembly consists of one hundred and twenty members, chosen once in two years by the people. A member must have a residence, and possession for one year previous to the election, of land to the amount of one hundred acres in the county for which he is chosen. The general assembly, by joint ballot, appoint the judges of the supreme courts of law and equity, judges of admiralty, and the attorney general. The judges hold their offices during good behavior, and the attorney general for two years. Every person of twenty-one years of age or upwards, who has resided in one county one year previously to an election, and paid taxes, is entitled to vote for members of the house of assembly. In addition to this, to be entitled to vote for senator, he must possess fifty acres of land. Free negroes, and persons of a mixed blood from negro ancestors, to the fourth generation, are excluded from the right of suffrage. The legislature meets once in two years, at Raleigh, on the second Monday of November.

SOUTH-CAROLINA.

The first settlement in South-Carolina was made at Port Royal, in 1670, by William Sayle; the next year he commenced the settlement of old Charleston; this place increased rapidly, and was for many years the

seat of government; but in 1680, the people of this town considered Oyster Point a more suitable place for a city, removed there, and laid the foundation of the present city of Charleston. The first settlers suffered extremely from the climate, and from the hostility of the natives. In 1690, Seth Sothel, who had been banished from North-Carolina, was, by favour of a party, made governor; but, on account of his oppression, he was afterwards removed from office. The English episcopalians, being very numerous, manifested a spirit of determined opposition against the French protestants. They were not willing to admit their representatives into the general assembly. The French were mild and peaceable, and the governor favoured their cause, and endeavoured to appease the feelings of their unchristian opposers.

In 1695, John Archdale was appointed governor of both Carolinas; order was now restored, and the French soon enjoyed all the rights of freemen. But not long after this, Lord Granville, one of the proprietors, and James Moore, the governor, determined to establish the episcopal religion by law. An act was passed for this purpose, depriving dissenters of all participation in the government; but the dissenters made complaint to the house of lords, and soon after the obnoxious law was declared void. During the war between England and Spain, Governor Moore made an unsuccessful expedition against the Spanish settlements. Soon after his return he marched against the neighbouring Indians. He burnt their towns, took many prisoners, and enriched himself by selling them as slaves. In 1706, a Spanish fleet appeared in Charleston harbour; but finding the whole force of the colony appeared to oppose them, they retired without a general attack. One of their ships, however, was taken by the colonists.

A general war with the Indians, who had conspired to extirpate the whites, commenced in 1715. It began by a general massacre of the colonists around Port Royal; a band of seventy whites, and forty negroes, after a short contest, surrendered, and were all immediately cut to pieces. Governor Carver, with a force of twelve hundred men, fought a bloody battle with the enemy, when the savages were defeated with great slaughter; four hundred whites were killed in the war, and a great deal of property destroyed. Besides the calamities of war, the colonists groaned under the cruel measures of the proprietors, and their oppressive officers. In 1719, a general union was formed, and after several unsuccessful attempts to produce a change in their favour, the people met and appointed James Moore their governor. He immediately assumed supreme authority, and controlled the affairs of the colony with spirit and decision.

Its peace was again disturbed, in 1738, by an insurrection of the slaves. At Stono they killed the keepers of a warehouse, and supplied themselves with guns and ammunition; they then marched forward with their colours flying, killed the whites, burnt their houses, and compelled the blacks to join them. The alarm soon reached Wiltown, where a large congregation were assembled for divine worship; having their arms with them, they immediately marched against the negroes, whom they found in an open field, dancing and rejoicing at their success. They fell upon them, killed some, and put the rest to flight. The colony afterwards suffered from the Indians; yet the population continually increased.

South-Carolina presents a great variety of soil and surface. Along the seaboard and for forty miles into the interior, the face of the country is flat and unpromising; covered with extensive tracts of pine barren, swamp, and savannah, or open meadow without wood; comprising the most fertile and the most sterile extremes of soil. Ascending towards the centre of the state, the country rises into hills of moderate elevation. Advancing still further in a north-westerly direction, it becomes mountainous, and very picturesque. The first section, which is generally called the lower

country, includes the sea-islands, famous for producing the finest kind of cotton, called the sea-island cotton, which bears a higher price than the other kinds; the tide lands are equally celebrated for their valuable crops of rice. The high lands of this region are generally poor, interspersed with strips of great fertility. The climate is moist, very changeable, and during the summer and autumn months, extremely unhealthy. The region which lies between the tide lands and the granite or mountain ridges, is called the middle country, less healthy in summer than the latter, but much more so than the former. In winter and spring, it may be regarded as much more healthy than either. It is well irrigated by rivers and water-courses. It possesses, amidst long and barren tracts of swamp and forest, many fine spots for culture, and produces, in considerable abundance, the kind of cotton which is called upland, or short staple.

The first constitution of South-Carolina was formed in 1775; the first which was formed in the Union. The present constitution was ratified at Columbia, June 3d, 1790. The governor is elected for two years by the joint vote of both houses of the legislature, and is ineligible for the next four years. He must be thirty years of age, have resided in the state for ten years, and possess, within the state, property to the amount of £1500 sterling, above his debts. The lieutenant governor is elected at the same time, in a similar manner, and with similar qualifications; and in case of the death, removal, resignation, or absence of the governor, discharges the duties of the office. The senate consists of forty-five members, elected for four years by the people. One half the number is elected biennially. A senator must be a free white citizen of the age of thirty years or upwards, and must have been a citizen and resident in the state for five years next preceding his election, and possess a freehold estate in the district for which he is elected, of the value of £300, clear of debt. If a non-resident within the district, he must possess within it an estate of £1000 clear of debt. The house of representatives consists of one hundred and twenty-five members, elected biennially by the people. A member must be a free citizen of the United States, twenty-one years of age or upwards, and have been a citizen of the state for at least three years next previous to his election, and possess a freehold estate of five hundred acres of land, and ten negroes, or real estate of £150 sterling, clear of debt. If a non-resident, he must possess a freehold estate of £400 sterling, clear of debt. The judges of the superior courts are elected by the joint ballot of the legislature. The courts consist of ten judges, and are three in number:—of law, equity, and appeal. The two former are common to all the districts; the latter is held only in Charleston and Columbia. The secretary of state, treasurer, and surveyor-general are elected in the same manner, and for the same period as the governor. Citizens and inhabitants of the state, who have paid taxes for the year preceding the election, and who have resided for six months in the county where they offer their vote, are entitled to the right of suffrage.

GEORGIA.

Georgia was the latest settled of the original thirteen United States. In 1732 George II. granted the territory now constituting the state of Georgia to a company of benevolent individuals, who desired to provide an asylum for the poor of England, and for the persecuted protestants of all nations. The affairs of the colony were committed to a board of twenty-one trustees, who made many wise and useful regulations. In January of the next year, James Oglethorpe, with one hundred and thirteen emigrants, arrived at Charleston, and after receiving a good supply

of provisions, they proceeded south and settled at Savannah. The next year a large company of poor persons arrived and commenced clearing up the wilderness; but the trustees finding many of these emigrants idle and inefficient, made liberal offers to any one who would settle in the colony, and this induced hundreds from Scotland, Germany, and Switzerland to emigrate.

In 1638 George Whitefield, the most celebrated preacher of modern times, visited the colony. His benevolence and piety had led him to explore the habitations of the poor in England, where he found hundreds of helpless orphan children, and his object now was to establish an orphan asylum in Georgia, where they might be trained up in the paths of virtue and religion. In 1740 about twenty-five hundred emigrants had settled in the colony; more than fifteen hundred of these were from among the poor of Europe, or persecuted protestants, and for their support the trustees had expended nearly $500,000.

At this time the Spaniards had possession of Florida, and Oglethorpe, fearing that they would combine with the Indians and invade Georgia, undertook an expedition against St. Augustine; this expedition proving unsuccessful, the Spaniards threatened to subdue Georgia, the Carolinas, and Virginia. Oglethorpe applied to South Carolina for assistance; but alarmed at their own danger, the people of that colony prepared only for their own defence. The general, hoping to be able to resist the enemy till aid should arrive, collected all his forces at Frederica; soon after a Spanish fleet arrived, and landed more than three thousand men. Oglethorpe, learniug that the Spanish army was separated into two divisions, determined to attack one of them by surprise. He advanced his troops in the night within two miles of one division; then selecting a small band, he advanced nearer, and, while observing the situation of the enemy, a French soldier in his service fired his musket, and deserted to the Spanish camp. The general, fearing that this deserter would make known to the enemy his bad situation, devised a very happy expedient, by which his little army escaped. He wrote a letter to this French soldier, instructing him to make known to the Spaniards the weakness of the English forces, and urge them to attack Frederica; and that he should persuade them if possible to remain on the island until the expected reinforcement should arrive from South Carolina. He also cautioned him not to drop a word respecting the attack which a British fleet was preparing to make upon St. Augustine. He concluded by promising him a large reward for his services. The letter was sent by a Spanish prisoner, who promised to give it to the deserter; but instead of this he carried it directly to the Spanish general, as was expected. The deserter was now supposed to be a spy, and was put in irons. Soon after three vessels of war appeared off the coast; the Spanish general supposing this to be the reinforcement spoken of in the letter, determined to attack the English without delay. Oglethorpe, anticipating his designs, placed a party of his men in ambuscade, and falling suddenly upon the Spaniards, killed many, and threw the rest into disorder. Thus defeated, and fearing the approach of the reinforcement, the enemy embarked and left the coast as soon as possible. By these successful manœuvres Gen. Oglethorpe saved his own, and perhaps all the neighbouring colonies. The trustees of Georgia being disappointed in their expectations, gave up their charter in 1752, when the king soon after established a government over Georgia similar to those in the other colonies, and it then began to flourish.

The present constitution of Georgia was formed in 1798, and amended in 1839. The governor is elected by the people, and holds his office for two years; his salary is $3000 annually, and with the other executive officers he is required during his term of office to reside at Milledgeville.

The state is divided into forty-six districts, and each district is entitled to one senator. The representatives are proportioned to the population, including three-fifths of the people of colour. The counties, according to their population, have from one to three members. The general assembly meets annually in November, at Milledgeville. The state is divided into eleven circuits, with a judge for each. An inferior court is held in each county, composed of five justices, elected by the people every four years; those courts possess the powers of courts of probate. The judges of the supreme court are elected for three years by the legislature; and the judges of the inferior courts and justices of the peace, are elected for four years by the people. All white male inhabitants, who shall have resided in the county in which they vote six months preceding the election, and shall have paid taxes in the state for the year previous, are entitled to the right of suffrage.

MAINE.

The first permanent settlement in Maine was made in Bristol as early as 1625, at Pemaquid point. In an old fort once called William Henry, and afterwards Frederic George, built of stone in 1692, and taken by the French in 1696, are found grave-stones of a very early date, and in other places coffins have been dug up, which bear indubitable evidence of a remote antiquity. In 1635 the district was granted by the British crown to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and he appointed a governor and council. In 1647 a government was established by the settlers. In 1652 the state of Massachusetts purchased the territory of the heirs of Gorges for $5334. In 1691 it was incorporated with Massachusetts, by a charter of William and Mary, and continued under its jurisdiction until it became an independent state. It had long a sufficient population to become a state, and efforts were made for this purpose in 1785, 1786, and 1802; but the inhabitants were averse to a separation. In 1820, however, a constitution was formed, and it was admitted to the Union as a sovereign state.

Maine is diversified, and has an uneven surface, but is not generally mountainous. On the western side of the state, east of the White mountains in New-Hampshire, an irregular chain of high lands commences, and passing north of the sources of the Kennebec and Penobscot rivers, and south of the sources of the Aroostook, extends eastwardly to the eastern boundary of the United States, and terminates at an isolated peak denominated Mars Hill, 1683 feet high. This chain, which is not continuous, the British, before the late treaty, claimed as the highlands described in a previous treaty. Katahdin, between the east and west branches of the Penobscot, 5300 feet above tide-water, is much the highest land in the state, and constitutes a part of the above range, if such it can be called. The rest of Maine is hilly, though the hills are not very elevated; the land on the sea-coast, for the distance from it of from ten to twenty miles, is not in general very fertile, but further inland, its quality is greatly improved. The uncleared lands are of great extent, and furnish a vast amount of pine and other timber. Lumber cut and sawed may be regarded as the staple production of the state, and is exported to the amount of about $10,000,000 annually. The state is well adapted to grazing, and the wool produced is estimated at $2,000,000 annually. Lime is manufactured, particularly at Thomaston and the vicinity, to the annual amount of $100,000. A fine building granite is found at Hallowell, and is extensively exported; the Hall of Justice in the city of New-York is composed of it. Previous to the year 1807, the wars in Europe gave to the United States much of the carrying trade of the

world, and Maine engaged largely in commerce, and neglected her lands for this superior source of wealth; but when the embargo, non-intercourse, and war crippled her commerce, her agricultural resources were developed.

Maine has a sea-coast of over two hundred miles, indented by numerous bays, and protected by numerous islands, and has more good harbours than any other state in the Union. Ships are extensively built, not only for their own use, but for a foreign market. The fisheries employ many of the inhabitants, and are not only a source of wealth, but are a nursery of seamen. Maine in point of shipping is the fourth state in the Union.

The government consists of a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The governor is elected by the people, and holds his office for one year; a council of seven persons to advise the governor is elected annually, by the joint ballot of the legislature. The senate consists of thirty-one members, elected by the people; the house of representatives consists of one hundred and fifty-one members, elected annually by the people. The right of suffrage is possessed by every male citizen of the United States of twenty-one years of age and upwards, excepting paupers, persons under guardianship, and Indians not taxed, who have resided in the state for three months next preceding an election. The election must be by written ballot. The judiciary is vested in a supreme judicial court, and such other courts as the legislature shall from time to time establish. The judges are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, and hold their offices during good behaviour, or until they are seventy years of age. In a similar manner are appointed the attorney general, the sheriffs, coroners, registers of probate, and notaries public.

VERMONT.

The first settlement of this state was at Fort Dummer, in the south-east part of the state, by emigrants from Massachusetts. New-Hampshire claimed the territory from 1741 to 1764, and granted many townships in it to proprietors, which were thence called the "New-Hampshire grants," and comprise now many of the best towns in the state. New-York also claimed the territory, and obtained a grant of it from the British parliament in 1764. These conflicting claims exceedingly harassed the inhabitants. At the commencement of the revolutionary war, Congress dared not admit Vermont to the Union, though the state proclaimed itself independent, for fear of offending New-Hampshire and New-York, especially the latter. Vermont had a difficult part to act, and it conducted itself with great wisdom and patriotism. The British hoped to be able to detach it from the American confederacy; and its leaders, without committing themselves, flattered these hopes, and saved its exposed frontier from attacks, while no portion of the Union showed a more devoted patriotism, or contributed more, according to its means, to the common cause. The "Green Mountain boys" were characterized by daring bravery in the revolutionary struggle. In 1790 New-York was induced, by the payment of $30,000, to withdraw her claims to the territory; and in 1791 Vermont was admitted to the Union, whose independence she had extensively contributed to acquire.

The surface of Vermont is hilly or mountainous. A few townships along the margin of lake Champlain may be regarded as level, extending from five to ten miles from it; but otherwise the surface is generally uneven, consisting of hills and valleys, alluvial flats, gentle acclivities, ele-

vated plains, and lofty mountains. The range of the Green mountains, so named by the French from the evergreens which cover them, and which have given name to the state, extend quite through it from north to south. From the line of Massachusetts to the southern part of Washington county, it constitutes a lofty and unbroken range, keeping nearly a middle course between Connecticut river on the east and lake Champlain on the west, and dividing the waters which fall into each. Though the passage across the mountains in this part is arduous, yet by the construction of good roads, and a judicious location of them, it is much less so than formerly. In the southern part of Washington county the Green mountains are separated into two ranges. The highest of these ranges passes west of the middle of the state to the Canada line. The highest peaks lie in this range, which are Camel's Hump, generally called Camel's Rump, 4188 feet high, and the Chin, in Mansfield mountain, 4279 feet high; and it is remarkable that the whole is cloven down to its base, admitting a passage for Winooski or Onion river through it, the mountain approaching oftentimes so near the river as scarcely to admit a road along its banks, and affording much sublime and romantic scenery.

The first constitution of this state was formed in 1777. The present constitution was formed July 4th, 1793, and has since been amended. The governor is elected annually by the people. He must be a citizen of the United States, and have resided in the state for four years next preceding his election. The lieutenant-governor is elected in the same manner, and must have the same qualifications; and in case of the absence of the governor, or his inability to serve, succeeds to the office. As lieutenant-governor, he is president of the senate. The supreme executive council consists of the governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve persons chosen by the people. The senate consists of thirty members, each county choosing at least one. Some are entitled to more, according to their population. The house of representatives consists of two hundred and thirty-one members, elected annually by the people. Every representative must be a citizen of the United States, must have resided in the state for two years, the latter of which must be in the town for which he is elected. The supreme court consists of five judges, elected annually by the legislature. The supreme court sits once a year, and the county courts twice, in each county. There is a court of chancery which holds a session in each county, each judge of the supreme court being chancellor of a circuit. The secretary of state is elected annually by the joint vote of both houses of the legislature, and the treasurer is chosen by the people. The right of suffrage is enjoyed by every person who is full twenty-one years of age, a citizen of the United States, of quiet and peaceable behaviour, and who has resided in the state for one year next preceding an election. A council of censors is appointed once in seven years, whose duty it is to inquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate, and whether the legislature and executive branches have performed their duty as guardians of the commonwealth; whether the taxes have been justly laid and collected, and the public moneys have been properly disposed of, and the laws have been duly executed.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

This territory, ten miles square, is situated on both sides of the Potomac river, about two hundred miles from the ocean, lying between the states of Maryland and Virginia, and ceded by them in 1790, to the United States, for the purpose of becoming the seat of the federal government. It is under the immediate jurisdiction of Congress, and contains the cities of Washington, Alexandria, and Georgetown. The population in 1840

was 43,712; of whom 30,657 were whites, 4,694 slaves, and 8,361 free coloured persons.

The site was selected by Washington, in accordance with a clause in the Constitution, which gives Congress the power to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases over such District, not exceeding ten miles square, as may, by the cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States. The location was happily chosen. It is central to the Atlantic states and easily accessible to the Western states. It contains one hundred square miles. The surface is gently undulating, with some low marshes, but many commanding eminences, furnishing extensive and fine views. The soil is naturally sterile, but the climate is healthy and the air salubrious. Agriculture is not a primary object of attention; nor is it pursued with the same success that it would be, if its soil were better adapted to the purpose.

The commerce of the District is considerable; but having the large city of Baltimore in its immediate vicinity, with superior advantages, it can never become very commanding. By the fine river, the Potomac, it has a ready access to the ocean. This river is navigable for vessels of the largest class to Alexandria, six miles below Washington, where it is a mile wide, and from thirty to fifty feet deep; and vessels of a large class come up to the United States' navy-yard at the junction of the east branch with the Potomac at Washington. A branch of the Chesapeake and Ohio canal terminates at Georgetown, and is extended seven and a half miles to Georgetown. By this means a large amount of flour and other produce comes down from the interior, which enters mostly at Alexandria, and some of it at Georgetown. The business at Washington relates chiefly to the accommodation of the national legislature, with its various departments, foreign ambassadors, and the numerous persons which are necessarily drawn around it.

There are two colleges in the District. Georgetown college, a Roman Catholic institution, was founded in 1799. The Columbian college, under the direction of the Baptists, was founded in 1821. Congress meets annually at Washington, on the first Monday of December, unless otherwise provided for by law. The president of the United States, and the other chief officers of the government, reside at Washington; and the Supreme Court of the United States sits here annually, on the second Monday in January.

KENTUCKY.

This state once belonged to Virginia. It was first explored in 1769–70, by Daniel Boone, an enterprising hunter; and the first permanent settlement was made, in 1774, at Harrodsburg. Until Wayne's treaty in 1795, it was continually exposed to incursions from the Indians. The first newspaper was issued at Lexington, August 28th, 1787. Kentucky was separated from Virginia in 1786, after which it had a territorial government until 1792, when it became a state and was admitted into the Union.

Cumberland Mountains run on the south-east border of the state, and send off spurs which extend into its eastern part, rendering it mountainous. The Cumberland range divides this state from Virginia. A tract along the Ohio river, from five to twenty miles wide, is broken and hilly, extending through the whole length of the state. But the hills are gently rounded, and are fertile to their tops, with narrow valleys between them of great fertility. Along the margin of the Ohio with an average width of one mile, are bottom lands subject to periodical inundations. Between the hilly tract on Ohio river, the mountainous country in the eastern

counties, and Green river, is a tract one hundred miles long, and fifty miles wide, beautifully undulating, with a black and fertile soil, which has been denominated the garden of Kentucky. The forest growth of this region is black walnut, cherry, honey locust, buckeye, papaw, sugar maple, elm, ash, hawthorn, coffee-tree, yellow poplar, with an abundance of grape vines of a large size. The country in the south-west part of the state, between Green and Cumberland rivers, has been improperly denominated barrens, as the soil is far from being poor. It is thinly wooded with short oak timber, and is covered, in summer, with a high grass. The whole state, below the mountains, rests on an immense bed of limestone, generally about eight feet below the surface, in which are frequent apertures, in which the waters of the rivers sink into the earth, causing the large rivers to be greatly diminished in the summer season, and some of the smaller ones entirely to disappear. In no part of the country do the rivers suffer so great a diminution in the dry season, as in Kentucky. The rivers have generally worn deep channels in the calcareous rocks over which they flow. Stupendous precipices are formed on Kentucky river, where the banks in many places are three hundred feet high, of solid limestone, with a steep and elevated ascent above them. In the south-west part of the state, between Green and Cumberland rivers, are several wonderful caves. The Mammoth cave, in Edmondson county, one hundred and thirty miles from Lexington on the road to Nashville, is one of the most remarkable caves in the world. It has been explored to a great distance, and is, with good reason, supposed to extend for eight or ten miles. The earth at the bottom is strongly impregnated with nitre, which has been, to a considerable extent, manufactured from it.

The climate of this state is generally salubrious. The winters are mild, being only of two or three months' continuance, but the atmosphere is moist. The spring and autumn are delightful. The extremes of heat and cold through the year are less than in some other parts of the country.

The first constitution was formed in 1790, and in 1799 the present constitution was formed. A governor is elected for four years by the people, and is ineligible for the next seven years. A lieutenant governor is chosen at the same time, who is president of the senate, and who, in case of the death or absence of the governor, discharges the duties of his office. The senators are elected for four years, one quarter of them being chosen annually. Their number cannot be over thirty-eight, the present number, nor less than twenty-four. The representatives are elected annually, and apportioned every four years among the different counties, according to the number of electors. The present number, one hundred, is the highest which the constitution allows, and there can never be less than fifty-eight. The general assembly meets annually at Frankfort, on the first Monday of November. Every free white male citizen, who is twenty-one years of age, and who has resided two years in the state or county in which he offers his vote, is entitled to the right of suffrage. Votes are given openly, or *viva voce*, and not by ballot. The judges of the different courts hold their offices during good behaviour.

TENNESSEE.

This state was originally included in the charter of North-Carolina, given by Charles II., in 1664. In 1757 Fort London was built, and garrisoned; and the Indians, to induce artisans to settle among them, made donations of land. Fort London was established on the north side of Little Tennessee river, about one mile above the mouth of Tellico, in the centre of the Cherokee country. A war with that Indian nation hav-

ing occurred, the garrison was besieged, and compelled to surrender for the want of provisions. By the terms of the capitulation they were to retire beyond the Blue Ridge; but after proceeding about twenty miles, the Indians fell upon and massacred the whole number, amounting to between two and three hundred, excepting nine persons. This happened in the year 1700. In 1761 Colonel Grant marched against the Indians and subdued them, and compelled them to sue for peace. The only settlements which had been made in the vicinity of Fort London were broken up by the war; but tranquillity having been restored, fifteen or twenty persons formed themselves into a company and came to a place now called Carter's valley, in East Tennessee. In 1768 an exploring party came into the country from Virginia. The first permanent settlements were made in 1768 and 1769, by settlers chiefly from North-Carolina and Virginia. The settlements continued to increase until 1774 and 1775, when an extensive purchase of land was made from the Indians by Henderson and company, but not without warm opposition from the chief, who declaimed against the encroachments of the whites, without effect. In 1776 war with the Indians occurred, but after some fighting an arrangement was made by the states of North-Carolina and Virginia, by which the boundaries of the territory, now the state of Tennessee, were definitely settled. In 1779 Captain James Robertson and others from East Tennessee crossed Cumberland Mountain, and explored the country in the neighbourhood of Nashville, and planted corn that season on the ground where Nashville now stands. They all returned for their families excepting three, who remained to keep the buffaloes, which abounded in this region, out of the corn. In May, 1790, congress passed a law for the government of the country southwest of the Ohio, and William Blount was, by President Washington, appointed the first governor of the territory, who in October, 1790, established his residence in East Tennessee. On the 19th of October the governor authorized an election of a colonial legislature by the people. The assembly met at Knoxville on the fourth Monday of February, 1794, and was regularly organized. In 1795, the territory was found to contain 77,262 inhabitants, which entitling them to become a state, a constitution was formed in February, 1796, and on the 6th of June, 1796, they were admitted to the Union. This constitution was revised and amended, and ratified by the people, in March, 1835.

On the eastern boundary is a chain of mountains denominated in its different parts, Unko, Iron, Smoky and Bald mountains which constitute a continuous range. None of the mountains of Tennessee are over two thousand feet high, and they are generally wooded to their tops, though in some instances too rough for cultivation. Iron ore is found in nearly every county in Eastern and Middle Tennessee, and in many places it is wrought, furnishing iron equal in quality to any in the country. On the borders of Georgia and North-Carolina some gold has been found, and a beautiful variegated marble near Nashville.

The climate is mild and generally healthy. The winter in Tennessee resembles the spring in New-England. Snow seldom falls to a greater depth than ten inches, or lies longer than ten days. Cumberland river has been frozen over but three or four times since the first settlement of the country. On some low grounds in the western parts of the state, the inhabitants are subject to bilious fevers, and fever and ague in the autumn.

The governor is elected by the people biennially, and is not eligible more than six years in any term of eight years. He must have attained the age of thirty years, must be a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the state for seven years next preceding his election. The senate consists of twenty-five members, elected by the people once in two years. Every senator must have attained the age of thirty years, must be a citizen of the United States, must have been an inhabitant of the state for

three years, and of the district for which he is elected for one year, immediately preceding his election. The house of representatives consists of seventy-five members, elected at the same time and for the same period as the senators. Every representative must be a citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-five years, must have been a citizen of the state for three years, and a resident in the county for which he is elected one year immediately preceding his election. All judges are elected by the joint vote of the general assembly. The judges of the supreme courts are elected for twelve years, and must have attained the age of thirty-five years. The judges of the inferior courts are elected for eight years, and must have attained the age of thirty years. The state attorneys are elected in the same manner, for the term of six years. The secretary of state is elected by the joint vote of the general assembly for four years; and the state treasurer, in like manner, for two years. Every free white male citizen of the United States, who has been a citizen of the county where he offers his vote for six months next preceding the day of election, enjoys the right of suffrage; and no person is disqualified from voting on account of his colour, who is, by the laws of the state, a competent witness in a court of justice against a white man. The legislature meets biennially at Nashville, on the first Monday of October.

OHIO.

Ohio is the most populous, wealthy, and improved state west of the Alleghany Mountains. It contains an area of forty thousand five hundred square miles, and a population of more than one and a half millions of souls. The first white settlement was made in 1789; yet now Ohio is the third state of the Union in population, and has nearly a thousand miles of canal and railroad. The country is generally level, except in the south-east, where it is broken and hilly; it is forested, except in the centre and north-west, where are extensive prairies. In a state of nature Ohio was, with the exception of some central prairies, covered with a dense forest, to which the fertility of the soil gave a stupendous developement. The most extensive prairies are found on the head waters of the Muskingum and Sciota; also near the sources of the Miami river. The soil is very fertile, and nine-tenths of the whole is capable of profitable cultivation. Corn, wheat, and pork are the staple productions; iron, coal, and salt abound in the south-east counties. Columbus, the capital, is a flourishing place on the Sciota river and national road, near the centre of the state. Cincinnati, on the Ohio, near the south-west corner of the state, is the largest and wealthiest city in the west, and the greatest pork market in the world.

The first permanent settlement was made at Marietta, in 1788. The next was at Columbia, six miles above Cincinnati, in 1789; and the next settlement was made by the French emigrants at Gallipolis, in 1791. Cleveland was settled by New-England, in 1796, as also was other points upon Lake Erie. The first territorial legislature met at Cincinnati, in 1799, and organized the government. In 1802, Ohio formed her state constitution, and was admitted a member of the Union.

The legislative authority is vested in a senate and house of representatives, both of which collectively, are styled the general assembly. The representatives are chosen for one year, and for eligibility must be citizens of the United States, and twenty-five years of age, having resided in the state one year, and paid taxes. Their number must never exceed seventy-two, nor be less than thirty-six. The senate is composed of members elected for two years, who must not exceed one-half nor fall

short of one-third, of the number in the house of representatives. A senator must be a citizen of the United States, thirty years of age, and have resided two years in the district from which he is chosen. The general assembly has the sole power of enacting all the state laws, the assent or signature of the governor not being necessary in any case whatever. The qualifications of an elector, are, to be one year a resident of the state, twenty-one years of age, and a citizen of the United States. The judiciary system comprises three several grades of courts, namely; the supreme court, courts of common pleas, and justices' courts. The supreme executive authority is vested in a governor chosen biennially by the people. He must be thirty years of age, and have resided in the state at least four years. He is commander-in-chief of the militia, and commissions all officers in the state, both civil and military.

INDIANA.

In 1702, Vincennes was settled by French soldiers of Louis XIV. from Canada. Separated from the rest of the world, they became assimilated to the savages by whom they were surrounded, and with whom they intermarried. At the peace between England and France in 1763, this country came into possession of the English. In the revolutionary war the inhabitants took sides with the Americans, in consequence of which the general government ceded to them a tract of land about Vincennes. In 1787, the United States took possession of Vincennes, and erected a fort on the opposite side of the river, for a defence against the savages. The inhabitants at that period consisted of French, Canadians, and Indians. The victories and treaty of Wayne in 1795, put an end to Indian hostilities. In 1811, in consequence of depredations and murders, a military force was sent against the Indians; and the bloody battle of Tippecanoe, under General Harrison, compelled them to sue for peace. In 1816, Indiana was admitted to the Union as an independent state, having previously been under territorial government, and has since rapidly progressed in population and improvement.

There are no mountains in Indiana, but the country bordering on Ohio river is hilly and broken. A range of hills runs parallel with Ohio river, from the mouth of the Great Miami to Blue river, sometimes approaching to within a few rods of the river, and at other times receding from it to the distance of two miles. Immediately below Blue river, the hills cease, and an immense tract of level land, covered with timber, is presented to the view. Strips of bottom and prairie land, covered with a heavy growth of timber, skirt all the principal rivers, excepting the Ohio, from three to six miles in width. With some few exceptions, the greater proportion of this state may be pronounced to be one vast level. The prairies and timber land alternate, and in general these kinds of land are more happily balanced than in other parts of the western country. Many prairies are long and narrow, so that the whole can be taken up, and timber be easily accessible by all the settlers. Even in the large prairies are those beautiful islands of timbered land, which form such a striking feature in the western prairies. The great extent of fertile land, and the happy distribution of rivers and springs, has been one cause of the very rapid increase of population in this state.

Iron and coal have been found in the state, and there are some salt springs, and Epsom salts are found in a cave near Corydon; but the mineral productions have no great interest. The climate is generally pleasant and healthy.

A governor is elected by the people for three years, and may be once

re-elected. At every election of governor, a lieutenant-governor is elected, who is president of the senate, and in case of the death, resignation, or removal of the governor, discharges the duties of the office. The senators and representatives are apportioned among the counties, according to the number of male white inhabitants, over twenty-one years of age. There can be no fewer than thirty-six nor over one hundred representatives. The representatives, and one third of the senators, are elected annually by the people. The legislature meets in December, annually, at Indianapolis. The judges of the supreme and circuit courts are appointed for the term of seven years. The judges of the supreme court are appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate; the chief justices of the circuit courts by the legislature; and the associate judges by the people. All male white inhabitants over twenty-one years of age, who have resided in the state for one year next preceding the election, enjoy the right of suffrage.

ILLINOIS.

In the latter part of the seventeenth century, Illinois was explored by the French from Canada, and some forts and trading posts were established. About 1720, several forts were built within the present limits of Illinois, of which Fort Charles was the most considerable, and a chain of communication was formed from Canada to the mouth of the Mississippi river. The oldest document in the state is at Kaskaskia, which is a petition to Louis XV. for a grant of common fields, stating the great losses of the people the year before by an extraordinary flood. At the peace of 1763, this country, together with Canada, was ceded to the English. In 1765, Captain Sterling, of the Royal Highlanders, took possession of Illinois, and was followed by several other commanders. In the Revolutionary war, the Virginia militia, under General Clarke, subjugated Fort Chartres, Kaskaskia, and conducted a successful expedition, in 1788, against Port Vincent, now Vincennes. In the same year the legislature of Virginia organized, in this remote region, the country of Illinois, which was afterward ceded to the United States. In 1800 the present territory of Illinois contained about three thousand inhabitants. In 1809 the territorial government was formed, and the population the next year amounted to twelve thousand. In 1818 a state constitution was formed, and Illinois was received into the Union as the twenty-second state.

The general surface of the country is level, or moderately undulating; the northern and southern portions are broken, and somewhat hilly, but no part of the state is traversed by ranges of hills, and there is nothing in the state which can be denominated a mountain. That portion of the state which lies south of a line from the mouth of the Wabash river to the mouth of Kaskaskia river, is generally covered with timber, but north of this the prairie country predominates. It is computed that two-thirds of the surface of the state is covered with prairies. The eye sometimes wanders over immense plains covered with grass, and, in the season of them, adorned with flowers, with no other boundary of vision but the distant horizon, though the view is often broken with occasional woodlands. Much of the prairie land is undulating and entirely dry. The dry prairies are generally from thirty to one hundred feet higher than the bottom land on the river, and are often very fertile. In many instances, there are copses or groves of timber, of from one hundred to two thousand acres, in the midst of prairies, like islands in the ocean. This is a common feature of the country between Sangamon river and lake Michigan in the north part of the state. Illinois in general is abundantly supplied with

timber, but it is unequally distributed, and on the prairies there is often a deficiency, which might be remedied by cultivation. The kinds of timber most abundant are oaks of various species, black and white walnut, ash of several kinds, elm, sugar-maple, honey-locust, hackberry, linden, hickory, cotton-wood, pecuan, mulberry, buckeye, sycamore, wild-cherry, box, sassafras, and persimmon. The alluvial soil on the rivers produces cotton-wood and sycamore timber of amazing size. In some parts of the state are knobs or ridges of flint limestone, intermingled and covered with earth, elevated one or two hundred feet above the common surface. Back of the alluvions which border the streams there are bluffs, some in parallel ridges, and others of a conical form, formed of limestone rock, from fifty to one hundred feet high. The soil of the state is generally fertile.

The most important mineral production of the state is lead, found in its north-west part, and in Wisconsin, in inexhaustible quantities, of which 13,000,000 pounds have been smelted in one year. Galena is the centre of the lead trade. Salt springs are found in the east and south part, particularly near Shawneetown. The salt-works are here owned by the United States, and leased to the manufacturers. Coal abounds in the bluffs, and iron exists in various parts of the state. Bituminous coal abounds in the ravines and bluffs. The climate is generally healthy, and the air, except in the neighbourhood of low and wet lands, is pure and serene.

Chicago, on lake Michigan, is the principal commercial depot in the north. It has a tolerably good harbour, which has been improved by artificial works. Alton is the most commercial place on the Mississippi, two and a half miles above the mouth of the Missouri. It has a good landing place. The other principal places are Springfield, the capital, Quincy, Galena, Peoria, Vandalia, and Kaskaskia.

The governor is elected by the people for four years, but is eligible only four years in eight. A lieutenant-governor is elected at the same time, who is president of the senate, and, in case of the death, resignation, or absence of the governor, discharges his duties. The senators are elected for four years, and the representatives for two years. The number of senators shall never be less than one third, nor more than one half the number of representatives. The judges of the supreme court are appointed by the joint ballot of both houses of the legislature, and hold their offices during good behaviour. Every white male inhabitant over twenty-one years of age, who has resided in the state for six months next preceding an election, has the right of suffrage.

LOUISIANA.

"The river Mississippi was discovered in 1663, by Marquette and Joliette, two French missionaries. In 1682 the country was explored by La Salle, and named Louisiana, in honour of Louis XIV. In 1699 a French settlement was begun at Ibberville, by M. Ibberville, who in the attempt to plant the country lost his life. His efforts were followed up by M. Crozat, a man of wealth, who held the exclusive trade of the country for a number of years. About the year 1717, he transferred his interest to a chartered company, at the head of which was the celebrated John Law, whose national bank and Mississippi speculation involved the ruin of half the French nobility. In 1731 the company resigned the concern to the crown, who, in 1762, ceded the whole of Louisiana to Spain. In 1800, Spain re-conveyed the province to the French, of whom it was purchased by the United States, in 1803, for about $15,000,000. This purchase included the present territories of the United States east of the Rocky moun-

tains. Soon after the purchase, the present state of Louisiana was separated from the rest of the territory, under the name of the territory of Orleans. In 1812, Louisiana was admitted to the Union as a state, and the part of West Florida west of Pearl river was annexed to it. The state is divided into thirty-eight parishes, answering to counties in other states.

All the country below the La Fourche, with little exception, is overflowed. By a survey made by order of the government of the United States, in 1828, it was found that the river overflowed an extent of 5,000,000 of acres, a great portion of which is at present unfit for cultivation. A part of this is covered by a heavy growth of timber and an almost impenetrable growth of cane, and other shrubbery. This becomes dry on the retiring of the river to its natural channels, and has a soil of great fertility, and which might, by labour, be rendered fit for cultivation. More earth is deposited by the Mississippi on its immediate margin than further back; and to prevent the river from inundating the valuable tract in the rear, which could not be drained, an artificial embankment is raised called the levee. On the east side of the river, this embankment commences sixty miles above New-Orleans, and extends down the river more than one hundred and thirty miles. On the west shore it commences at Point Coupée, one hundred and seventy-two miles above New-Orleans. Along this portion of the river, its sides present many beautiful and finely cultivated plantations, and a continued succession of pleasant residences.

The constitution of this state was formed in 1812. The governor is elected for four years. The people give their votes for governor at the same time they vote for senators and representatives, and on the second day of the succeeding session of the general assembly, the two houses, by a joint ballot, elect for governor one of the two candidates who have the greatest number of votes. The governor's term of office commences on the fourth Monday succeeding his election, and continues for four years. The senators are elected for four years, one-half being chosen every two years. The present number is seventeen, chosen by senatorial districts. The representatives are elected for two years, appointed according to the number of electors, as ascertained by enumeration every four years. The present number is sixty. The pay of the members of both houses is four dollars per day. Their legislature meets biennially at New-Orleans, on the first Monday of January. The judges of the supreme and inferior courts are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The right of suffrage is possessed by every white male citizen of the United States, of twenty-one years of age or upwards, who has resided in the county where he offers his vote one year next preceding the election, and who in the last preceding six months has paid a state tax.

MISSISSIPPI.

In 1716, the French formed a settlement at the place where the city of Natchez now stands, and laid claim to the country as belonging to Louisiana. This colony was massacred by the Indians in 1729. In 1763, it was ceded to the British, and north of the thirty-first degree of north latitude was in the chartered limits of Georgia; south of that, it belonged to West Florida, which was ceded to the United States in 1798 by Spain. In 1800, this state, with Alabama, was constituted a territory, under the name of the Mississippi territory. In 1817, Mississippi was separated from Alabama, and was admitted to the Union as a sovereign state. The

constitution was formed in 1817, and revised and amended in 1832. The state is divided into fifty-six counties.

Jackson, in Hinds county, a little west of Pearl river, is the capital of the state. Mississippi has a sea-coast of only about seventy miles, with no harbour in this distance which admits large vessels. A chain of low and sandy islands along the coast encloses Pascagoula bay, which is sixty-five miles long and seven wide, forming an inland navigation between Mobile bay and the lake Borgne, which communicates with the Gulf of Mexico by a number of entrances, that admit vessels requiring eight feet of water. The south part of the state, for about one hundred miles from the Gulf of Mexico, is a level country, covered chiefly with pine forests, swamps, prairies, or marshes.

The Mississippi river washes the entire western border for a distance, by the windings of the stream, of three hundred and fifty miles. A large portion of its bank in this state consists of inundated swamp, covered with cypress, excepting occasional elevated bluffs, which immediately border the river. The Yazoo is the largest river which flows wholly within the state, and enters the Mississippi twelve miles above Vicksburg. It is one hundred yards wide at its mouth, is two hundred miles long, and is navigable for large boats fifty miles.

The largest and most commercial place in the state is Natchez, on the Mississippi, situated on a bluff elevated two hundred and fifty feet above the surface of the river, three hundred miles above New-Orleans, by the course of the river. Vicksburg, one hundred and six miles above Natchez, and twelve below the mouth of Yazoo river, has had a rapid growth, and is flourishing.

The governor is elected biennially by the people, but is ineligible for more than four years in any term of six years. He must be twenty five years of age, and have been a citizen of the United States for twenty years. The senate consists of thirty members, elected for the term of four years, one-half of the number being elected every two years, by the people. A senator must be a citizen of the United States, have resided in the state for four years, and in the district for which he is chosen for one year next preceding his election, and be thirty years of age. The house of representatives consists of ninety-one members, citizens of the United States, elected biennially by the people. Every representative must have resided in the state for two years, and in the city, town, or district for which he is chosen, for one year next preceding his election. The judges of the high court of errors and appeals are elected by the people for six years; the judges of the circuit court for the term of four years; the chancellor for the term of six years; the judges of probate for the term of two years. The judges of the high court of appeals and errors must be thirty years of age; and the others twenty-five years of age. The secretary of state, the treasurer, and the sheriffs, are elected by the people, for the term of two years. Every white male person of twenty-one years of age or over, a citizen of the United States, who has resided in the state for one year, and in the county for which he offers his vote, four months next preceding an election, enjoys the right of suffrage. The legislature meets biennially at Jackson, on the first Monday in January.

MISSOURI.

The territory of this state was included in Louisiana, purchased by the United States of France, in 1803. The town of St. Louis was settled by the French in 1764, as a trading post with the Indians, and remained such until it was purchased by the United States. In 1804, Louisiana was

divided into the territory of Orleans, extending to the 23° of north latitude, and the residue was styled the district of Louisiana. In 1805 the district was erected into a territorial government, under the name of the territory of Louisiana, and in 1812 its name was changed to Missouri. In 1821 a part of this territory was admitted to the Union as the state of Missouri, after much debate on the subject of slavery, which was allowed, by its constitution, under certain restrictions.

The state is divided into sixty-two counties, and Jefferson city, on the south bank of the Missouri river, fifteen miles above the mouth of Osage river, is the seat of government. The state presents a variety of surface and of soil. South of Cape Girardeau, with the exception of some bluffs along the Mississippi, it is alluvial, and a large portion consists of swamps and inundated lands, most of which are heavily timbered. From thence to the Missouri river, and westward to the dividing ridge between Gasconade and the Osage rivers, the country is generally rolling, and in some parts quite hilly. Along the head waters of Gasconade and Big Black rivers, the hills are frequently abrupt and rocky, with fertile alluvion along the water courses. Much of this region abounds with various minerals, as lead, iron ore, gypsum, manganese, zinc, antimony, cobalt, ochres, common salt, nitre, plumbago, porphyry, jasper, chalcedony, buhrstone, marble and free-stone. The lead is inexhaustible in quantity and rich in quality. The iron ore of this region is sufficient to supply the whole United States for many thousands of years. Bituminous coal exists in inexhaustible abundance. The difficulty of transporting products to a market, is the only inconvenience.

The western part of this state is divided into prairie and forest land, and much of the soil is fertile. The whole is undulating, and along the Osage it is hilly, abounding with good water, salt springs and limestone. North of the Missouri, the surface is diversified, and divided between timber and prairie land. From the Missouri to Salt river, springs are scarce, and in several counties artificial wells are dug, to be filled with rain water from the roofs of houses. Between Salt river and Des Moines river is a beautiful country, with a fertile soil. In the middle counties north of the Missouri the surface is rolling, and there are bluffs and hills, with considerable good prairie, and much timber. To the west of this, and also to the north, the prairie predominates.

The lead region, the centre of which is seventy miles south-west of the Missouri, is seventy miles long, and forty-five wide, covering an area of 3150 square miles. The greatest part of this country is situated in Washington and St. Francis counties, but a part extends into St. Genevieve and Jefferson counties. The ore is of the richest kind. It yields from eighty to eighty-five per cent. of the true metal. In the south-east part of Washington county is the celebrated "iron mountain," one mile broad at its base, and three miles long, and from three hundred to four hundred and fifty feet high, filled with micaceous oxide of iron, which yields eighty per cent. of the pure metal. There is another body of iron ore denominated Pilot Knob, three hundred feet high, and a mile and a half wide at its base, which is equally rich. Washington county is a perfect bed of metallic treasures.

The Mississippi winds along the entire boundary of the state, for a distance of four hundred miles, and receives the waters of the mighty Missouri, which crosses the state, and deserves to be regarded, on account of its length, and the volume of its waters, as the parent stream. The Missouri is navigable eighteen hundred miles from its mouth in the Mississippi, to the mouth of Yellow Stone river, for four or five months in the year. The Missouri receives La Mine, Osage, and Gasconade rivers on the south side, and Grand and Chariton rivers on the north side. Salt river crosses the north-east part of the state, and enters Mississippi river eighty-five miles above the mouth of Missouri river.

The governor is elected once in four years by the people, but is ineligible for the next succeeding four years. He must be a natural born citizen of the United States, at least thirty-five years of age, and have resided in the state for four years next preceding his election. The lieutenant-governor is elected at the same time, in the same manner, and must possess similar qualifications. He is president of the senate; and in case of the death, resignation, or removal from office of the governor, discharges the duties of that office, until it is regularly filled. The senate consists of eighteen members, chosen for four years; one half the number being elected biennially. A senator must be at least thirty years of age, a citizen of the United States, have resided in the state for four years next preceding the election, and for one year in the district for which he is elected, and must have paid a state or county tax. The house of representatives consists of forty-nine members, elected biennially by the people. A representative must be at least twenty-four years of age, have been an inhabitant of the state for two years next preceding his election, and have paid a state or county tax, and be a citizen of the United States. The governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, appoints the judges of the superior and inferior courts, and the chancellor, who hold their offices during good behaviour. They cannot be appointed before they have attained the age of thirty years, nor hold their office after the age of sixty-five years. Every white male citizen, of twenty-five years of age or upward, who has resided in the state for one year next previous to an election, and the last three months in the district in which he offers his vote, is entitled to the right of suffrage.

ARKANSAS.

Arkansas was a part of the Louisiana purchase. It was made a separate territory in 1819, and was admitted into the Union, a sovereign state, in 1820. The capital is Little Rock, situated on the south side of Arkansas river, three hundred miles from its entrance into the Mississippi. The other principal towns or villages are Columbia and Helena, on the Mississippi, Batesville, on White river, Van Buren on the Arkansas, Fayetteville, in the north-west part of the state, and Fulton on Red river.

The eastern part of the state, for the distance of one hundred miles from the Mississippi, is low and wet, covered extensively with swamps and marshes, and much of it is subject to be overflowed at certain seasons. Near the St. Francis hills, and at Point Chico, the eastern front along the Mississippi is above the overflow. In the middle, the country is uneven and broken, and in the west it is hilly and mountainous. There are some extensive prairies and some heavily timbered land. On the margins of the rivers the soil is generally fertile, but back of this it is poor. The Ozark mountains, rising sometimes to the height of from 1,000 to 2,000 feet, cross its north-west part. A range of hills called the Black Mountains, runs between the Arkansas and White rivers. A little south-west of the centre of the state are boiling springs, the temperature of which sometimes rises nearly to 212° Fahrenheit, though subject to much variation. Wild animals, as the deer, elk, bear, and wolf, and wild fowls, as the wild goose, turkey, and quail, are found in abundance. Its mineral productions are extensive, consisting of iron ore, gypsum, coal, and salt.

The constitution of the state was formed in 1836. The governor is chosen by the people for four years, but cannot hold the office more than eight years in twelve. The members of the senate are chosen by the people for four years, and the representatives for two years. The elections are *viva voce*. The senate can never consist of less then seventeen

nor more than thirty-three members; and the house of representatives of less than fifty-four, nor more than one hundred members. The judges of the supreme court are appointed for eight years, and of the circuit court for four years, and are all chosen by the legislature. The judges of the county courts are chosen by the justices of the peace. The legislature meets once in two years at Little Rock. Every white male citizen of the United States, and who has resided in the state for six months, possesses the right of suffrage. No lotteries can be established, nor lottery tickets sold. The legislature may establish one bank with branches, and one banking institution to promote the interests of agriculture. It cannot emancipate slaves without the consent of their owners. Slaves have the right of trial by jury, and suffer the same degree of punishment for a crime as white persons, and no other. Courts of justice are obliged to assign counsel to the slaves for their defence.

ALABAMA.

This state was originally included in the territorial limits of Georgia, except the part which belonged to Florida. In 1802, Georgia ceded all her territory west of Chattahoochee river to the Mississippi river, to the United States, and in 1817 it was constituted the Mississippi territory, and Alabama continued part of this territory until it was admitted to the Union and became an independent state in 1820.

The capital is Tuscaloosa, situated on Black Warrior river. Mobile is the most populous and commercial place in the state. The other principal towns are Huntsville, Florence, Wetumpka, Montgomery, Cahawba, and St. Stephen's. Near the Gulf of Mexico, the country is low and level, with many swamps and savannahs; the soil is sandy, and the prevailing timber is pine. The central part is an elevated table land, with a deep, rich, and productive soil, and a mild and healthy climate. Towards the north, the country becomes hilly and mountainous, beyond which is the valley of Tennessee river, on which, in some parts, the bottom land is low, and, near the Muscle Shoals, unhealthy. Cotton is the chief production of the state, of which there were produced, in 1840, 117,138,823 pounds. Mobile is the principal river, and is formed by the junction of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, and enters Mobile bay by two mouths. The Alabama is navigable for vessels requiring six feet of water, sixty miles above its junction, and has four or five feet of water 150 miles, to the mouth of the Cahawba. It is traversed by steamboats as far up as Montgomery, 300 miles; and to Tuscaloosa, 235 miles—and to Columbus, Miss.

Mobile was incorporated a city in 1819. It has now near fifty wharves, and is, with the exception of New-Orleans, the greatest cotton-market in the United States. The exports of the city amount annually to about $16,000,000. Mobile bay sets up from the Gulf of Mexico 30 miles, and is 12 miles average width; on the point is a lighthouse the lantern of which is fifty-five feet above the level of the sea. Fort Morgan, opposite Dauphin island, defends the entrance.

The executive power is vested in a governor, elected biennially by the people. The legislative power consists of a senate and house of representatives; the former contains thirty and the latter one hundred members. The legislature meets annually at Tuscaloosa, on the first Monday in November. The secretary of state is elected for two years, and the comptroller and treasurer annually, by the joint ballot of both houses of the legislature. The right of suffrage is possessed by every male citizen of twenty-one years of age, who has resided within the state one year immediately preceding the election, and the last three months within the county, city, or town, in which he offers his vote.

MICHIGAN.

The state of Michigan is composed of two peninsulas, formed by the great lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, and Erie, and is unsurpassed in advantages for commerce by any inland state in the Union. Michigan was visited by French traders as early as 1640. Detroit was settled in 1670. At the peace of 1763, this country was ceded by France to Great Britain, and at the close of the revolutionary war was ceded by Great Britain to the United States. They, however, held possession of Detroit until 1796, when it was given up to the United States. In 1805 the state was erected into a distinct territory, and received a territorial government. The British again obtained possession of the country, in 1812–13, but were soon expelled by the Americans under General Harrison. In 1836, Michigan was admitted into the Union as a sovereign state.

The surface of the lower or southern peninsula is generally level, having very few elevations which may be termed hills. The interior is undulating, rising gradually from the lakes to the centre of the peninsula, and is mostly covered with fine forests, interspersed with prairies. Along the eastern shores of Lake Michigan, are sand hills, thrown by the winds into innumerable fantastic forms, sometimes covered with stinted trees and scanty vegetation, but most generally bare; on the shores of Lake Huron, are some high cliffs. The point formed by Lake Huron and Saginaw bay is generally low and swampy. The forest trees are the same as in Ohio, with the addition of white and yellow pine; and fruit trees produce abundantly.

The northern peninsula does not promise much to agriculture, though there are doubtless fertile tracts; but in minerals it is rich. Iron, copper, and lead are abundant, and some surprising masses of native copper have been discovered in Ontonagon river. The climate is cold, but healthy; and though the summers are short, vegetation is exceedingly rapid. No part of the United States is better supplied with aquatic game and fish.

The powers of government are divided into three distinct departments; the legislative, the executive, and judicial. The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives. Senators are chosen every two years, and representatives annually. The executive power is vested in a governor. Term of service two years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, and such other courts as the legislature may from time to time establish. Every white male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years of age, having resided in the state six months preceding an election, is a qualified elector.

FLORIDA.

Florida was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, sailing under the English flag, in 1497: but he did not land to examine the interior of the country. Ponce de Leon, a Spanish adventurer from Hispaniola, to some extent explored the country in 1512, and a second time in 1516. In 1539 Hernando de Soto, who had greatly distinguished himself under Pizarro, in the conquest of Peru, sailed from the island of Cuba, and landed at Tampa Bay in Florida with an armed force, with which he overran the country, though his followers were mostly cut off, and himself died. In 1763, Florida was ceded to Great Britain by Spain. The Spanish re-conquered it in 1781, and it was confirmed to them at the peace of 1783; but in 1821 the Spaniards ceded it to the United States in compensation for spoliations on their commerce. Florida was admitted into the Union on the 3d of March, 1845.

The face of the country is uneven; but it is without mountains or high

hills. The whole extent of the sea-coast is indented with bays and lagoons. A large portion of the country is covered with pine forests, the trees of which, standing at a considerable distance from each other, without brush or underwood, affords an opportunity for the grass and flowers to spread with luxuriance over the surface of the earth during the whole year. The borders of the streams are usually skirted by hammocks of hard timber entangled with grape and other vines. The sea-coast is generally healthy, and in many parts remarkably so. The peninsula, which is the southern portion of the territory, presents a singular alternation of savannahs, hammocks, lagoons, and grass-ponds, called collectively the Everglades, which extend into the heart of the country for two hundred miles north of Cape Sable.

The legislative council is composed of eleven members elected for two years, and a house of representatives composed of twenty-nine members, elected annually by the people on the second Monday in October. The legislative council meets annually, at Tallahassee, the seat of government, and the residence of the governor, on the first Monday in January, and its sessions are limited to seventy-five days. The pay of the members is four dollars a day, and four dollars for every twenty miles travelling, to and from the seat of government.

TEXAS.

This state was admitted into the Union, after a very stormy debate, in 1845. It contains an area of 200,000 square miles, divided into three distinct regions, each of which invites the hand of man to an essentially different system of agricultural production. The Coast Plain, or level region, lies in the form of a crescent directly on the Gulf of Mexico, and extends from the Sabine to the Rio Grande—a distance of four hundred miles. Each extremity of this plain narrows down to a width of perhaps thirty miles; but about the centre, at the Colorado, it expands, and runs back a hundred miles, in one vast flower-embroidered prairie, unbroken by rock or waterfall. The prevailing character, says Kennedy, of the soil of the level region of Texas is a rich alluvian, and singularly free from those accumulations of stagnant water which, combined with a burning sun and exuberant vegetation, render a large proportion of the southern parts of the United States little better than a sickly desert. The porous character of the soil, the gradual elevation of the level lands toward the interior, and the general rise of the banks from the beds of the streams, preclude the formation of swamps to any injurious extent. The returns of the soil are abundant, and the most valuable known to commerce. To cotton and sugar, already tested, may be probably added indigo and cochineal. Lemons and oranges grow well in favourable situations, and the fig, peach, prune, olive, almond, and all the fruits of the temperate zone, will thrive in any part of the Gulf prairie.

Midland Texas consists of a large zone, nearly two hundred miles in width, from east to west across the country. This is the chosen home of the grain-raising farmer; timber of the best kind is plentiful, and so distributed that the settler can have on his farm a fair proportion of prairie ready for the plough.

Northern Texas, lying between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, has been little explored for settlement. At the close of 1833, and during the two subsequent years, emigrants were placed by a New-York land company, under an Empresario grant, at a settlement called Dolores, on the Rio Grande. The report of Mr. Egerton, the company's surveyor, represents the banks of the Rio Grande as well adapted to farming: and describes the whole country between that river and the Medina as unsurpassed for grazing.

Previously to 1690, Texas formed a remote and merely nominal part of the conquests of Cortez, inhabited almost wholly by predatory Indian tribes; but in that year the Spaniards, having driven out a colony of French who had established themselves at Matagorda, made their first permanent settlement at San Francisco. On the consummation of Mexican independence, Texas was constituted one of the federal states of Mexico, in conjunction with the adjacent state of Coahuila; a union very unpopular with the Texians, and which was productive of the first disagreement with the central government, and as we have seen, in conjunction with other causes, induced them finally to throw off entirely the Mexican government, and successfully assert their own independence.

The principal towns are Galveston, Austin, Houston, Nacogdoches, Bexar, Goliad, and Matagorda. The geographical position of Texas is eminently favourable to the growth and extension of commerce. Its rivers, and the facilities which the country affords for the completion of railways, will enable the traders and agriculturists to forward their produce easily to the coast and the European markets. After the rivers already named, the principal proceeding from north to south, are the Neches, Trinidad, Brazos de Dios, Colorado, Guadaloupe, San Antonio, and Nueces. They all fall into the Gulf of Mexico, or rather (except the Brazos de Dios) into its bays and lagoons.

IOWA.

This is the youngest of the United States' territories, and has grown more rapidly, since its organization, in 1838, than any state or territory in the Union. Its population was sufficient, in 1845, to warrant the action of Congress establishing it a separate state. For some reasons disliking the terms of admission, however, the people, twice by popular vote, decided their state should remain a territory.

The territory embraces all that portion of country lying north of the state of Missouri, west of the Mississippi river and a line due north from its source to the British possessions, south of the British possessions, and east of the Missouri and White-earth rivers. That part of the territory which has been surveyed, is a strip on the Mississippi of about an average width of sixty miles; extending from the north boundary of the state of Missouri a distance of two hundred and ten miles, to the Yellow river. This portion is more or less settled; it is a beautiful, fertile, healthy, and undulating country, abounding in springs and mill streams. It is now settling very rapidly, with enterprising and industrious inhabitants. The streams rise in the great prairies, and those which have an easterly course unite with the Mississippi, the eastern boundary of the territory, while those which flow in a westerly direction, fall into the Missouri river. The streams which flow through the surveyed part are the Des Moines, Skunk, Iowa, Wapsipinecon, Macoquetta, Turkey, and Yellow rivers; further north, is the Upper Iowa, and still further, the St. Peter's river, which rises near the "sacred red pipestone quarries" of the Indians.

Iowa city, the capital, was laid out in 1839, in a fine, healthy, fertile, country, on Iowa river, eighty miles from the Mississippi, and is already a considerable town. Burlington, on the Mississippi, forty or fifty miles from the south-east corner of the territory, has a good landing. Bloomington is advantageously located on a bend in the Mississippi, at the first place above Burlington where a town can be built. Dubuque, on the Mississippi, opposite a corner of Illinois, is the emporium of the lead region.

The legislative power is vested in the governor and the legislative assembly, which consists of a council of thirteen members, elected for two years, and a house of representatives of twenty-six members, elected annually. The sum of $20,000 has been appropriated by the United States, to erect public buildings at the seat of the territorial government.

WISCONSIN.

Wisconsin territory embraces all that portion of country lying north of the state of Illinois; east of the Mississippi river and a line drawn due north from its source to the boundary between the United States and the British possessions; and west of the Montreal and Menomonee rivers, and Lake Michigan.

Madison, between the third and fourth lakes, of the chain of the Four Lakes, in Dane county, is the capital. The United States' government have appropriated $40,000 for the erection of public buildings, and $5,000 for the public library. The most important place in the territory is Milwaukie, on Lake Michigan. Green Bay, near the mouth of Fox river, has a good harbour and an extensive trade. Racine, on Lake Michigan, and Prairie du Chien, on the Mississippi river, just above the mouth of the Wisconsin river, are important and growing places.

The surveyed portion of the country south of Green Bay, Fox, and Wisconsin rivers, is composed of timbered and prairie land, with some swamps, or wet prairies, having generally a soil from one to ten feet deep. All kinds of crops which are raised in northern latitudes may be cultivated with success; and, owing to the great range of pasturage on the prairies, it is an uncommonly fine country for grazing. The counties of Grant and Iowa abound with lead and copper ore. This region is well watered with clear perennial streams and springs. North of the Wisconsin commences a hilly, and thence northward gradually swelling into a mountainous, region; the surface becomes rugged and broken, the streams rushing down falls and rapids, forming, in many places, wild and picturesque views. Near the sources of the Mississippi is an elevated table land, abounding with lakes and swamps, filled with wild rice and fish. Bordering the Mississippi and Wisconsin rivers, the soil is rich, and the surface most generally covered with a heavy growth of timber.

The legislative power is vested in the governor and the legislative assembly. The legislative assembly consists of a council of thirteen members, elected for four years, and a house of representatives of twenty-six members, elected for two years.

OREGON.

This is the last corner of the earth, according to an English reviewer, which is left free for the occupation of a civilized race. When Oregon shall be filled up, the map of the world will be completed. The romantic days in which every new adventurer saw, in the first green shores which greeted him, the nursery of some new empire to be called by his name, are gone forever. The world has grown old within the last two hundred years more rapidly than in the preceding two thousand years. The future conquests of man must be over other elements, Earth has but little more left to dispose of. Of the beautiful islands in the Pacific, the loveliest and largest are already appropriated. The vast and teeming solitudes of South-America, it is true, afford room for empires; but their air breathes death to the northern colonist.

Generally speaking, Oregon consists mostly of mountains. The summits of the Rocky Mountains rise above the line of perpetual congelation; and the country descends below them by regular belts, in the form of immense terraces, or descending plains, disposed regularly one below the other. The country must have an abrupt slope towards the Pacific, as it descends as much in six hundred miles to the west, as it does in fifteen

hundred to the east. The Columbia river, its chief geographical feature, in falling from the Rocky Mountains to the sea, cuts transversly three or four mountain ridges. One of them, the President's range, has points of extreme height, reaching up near sixteen thousand feet in single peaks, and frowning down almost immediately over its waters. North of the Columbia, the country is but a labyrinth of mountains; interspersed, indeed, with vallies, and covered with a heavy growth of timber. South of the Columbia, the scene suddenly and completely changes; an undulating country appears, clad with magnificent trees. This, however, does not last; as the interior is composed of volcanic and arid plains, with a soil entirely useless.

The Encyclopædia Britannica describes this territory as "a vast extent of country belonging to the United States of America, which is situated to the west of the Rocky Mountains, between the 41st and 54th parallels of north latitude, and the 34th and 48th meridians of west longitude." It was first discovered by the Spanish, and by them sold to the Americans. The Columbia river was examined as early as 1790, by Gray, an American navigator; and in 1805, the interior of the country was explored by Lewis and Clarke, by order of the United States' government. In 1811 a settlement was founded by Mr. Astor, of New-York, at the mouth of the Columbia; but this was taken by the British in the war of 1812-13, and when restored, was sold to the Hudson's Bay company. The trading posts are at present in possession of the English, though the settlers, being mostly Americans, are clamorous to come under the government of the U. States.

The sources of the Columbia are said to be interlocked with those of the Missouri river. Immediately after it emerges from the Rocky Mountains, its current becomes broad and deep, and having received Clarke's and Lewis' rivers, which flow in from rich vallies on the south-east, and the Wallamette and Coweliskee rivers (whose vallies are surpassingly rich and beautiful), its breadth is enlarged to nine hundred and sixty yards. It there takes a great bend to the south, and penetrates the second mountain barrier. One hundred and thirty-six miles lower down are the great falls, or cascades, which descend altogether fifty-seven feet. Below the falls the river winds first to the north-west and then to the southwest and intersects the third chain of mountains, where it is again compressed to one hundred and fifty yards in breadth. Below this rapid, which is distant one hundred and eighty miles from the Pacific, it meets the tide, and from this point it has a broad estuary to the sea. Sixty miles below the falls, the Wallamette flows in from the south-east; and a half day's journey below that, the Coweliskee. There are no other streams of importance in the whole territory.

A bill is now before Congress for the organization of a government in Oregon. If it pass without much amending, its provisions may be summed up as follows:—Sec. 1. Extends the jurisdiction of Iowa over Oregon. Sec. 2. Regulates the courts. Sec. 3. Authorizes the president to appoint justices of the peace, and provides that British subjects who shall be arrested shall be delivered up for trial to the nearest British authority. Sec. 4. Grants six hundred and forty acres of land to every white male inhabitant of Oregon, of 18 years age and upwards, who may have removed or in two years shall remove from the United States and settle in Oregon. Sec. 5. Provides for the appointment of a superintendent of Indian affairs. Sec. 6. Authorizes the president to erect military posts to protect emigrants. Sec. 7. Provides for raising two regiments of mounted men, for the same purpose. Sec. 8. Provides for an overland mail to the mouth of the Columbia river. Sec. 9. Appropriates $200,000 to carry the provisions of this bill into operation. Sec. 10. Provides for giving notice forthwith to the British government, of the termination of the joint occupancy. It is understood the British minister objects only to the 4th and 6th sections.

CALIFORNIA.

As the transfer of a portion of this country is now in agitation between governments, and as citizens of the west are emigrating thither in numbers, enticed by the glowing representations of those who have preceded them, a brief notice of what the region really is, may be deemed due to the public.

California is naturally divided into Old or Lower, and New or Upper; which, as they differ widely, require to be noticed separately. The first, consists of a long, narrow peninsula, on the west coast of America, which is separated by the gulf of California from the Mexican province of Sonora. It is about seven hundred miles in length, and from thirty to one hundred in breadth. The country is perfectly worthless. A range of low, bare rocky mountains runs through it, without water, and the sea coast is sand. The climate is dry and hot, and hurricanes are frequent. Timber of any description is scarcely to be found, and corn cannot be produced. It is, in fact, one of the most barren and unattractive regions within the temperate zone. There are some tolerable harbours; but the same barrenness reigns around them that prevails elsewhere, and renders them ineligible as situations for towns. The pearl-fishery in the gulf of California has been famed, and in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries large quantities of pearls were obtained by Spanish adventurers. Pearls, tortoise-shell, and a few bullocks' hides constitute all the exports of Lower California, which are mostly sent to San Blas and Mazatlan, in small coasting vessels.

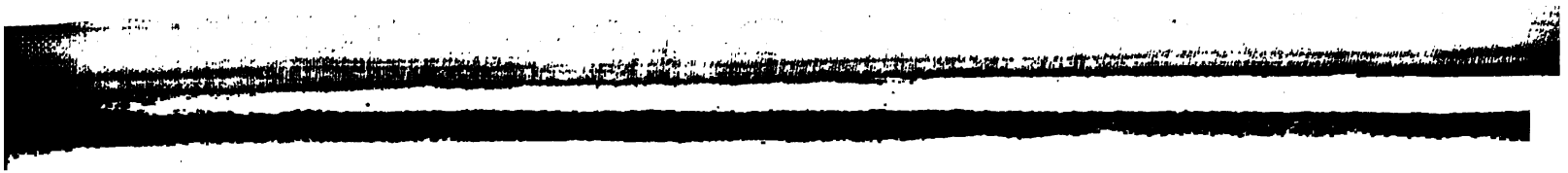
Upper California stretches from San Diego, in lat. 32° north, to 42°, making seven hundred miles of seaboard, indented by bays and harbours, many of them equal to any in the world, and one, San Francisco, forming probably the best and safest harbour now known. A country extending back from one hundred and fifty to one thousand miles, which is half as large as Europe, or fifteen times larger than the state of Ohio—and has a soil in fertility equal to the alluvial bottoms of the Mississippi: a country high and as healthy as any other, with a most delightful climate, where winter is unknown, and the heat of summer moderated by the healthful sea breeze, coming continually from the Pacific. A climate more regular and healthful than any in America excepting that of Chili, in South America. The coast rises abruptly from the sea, to vast plains of rich table land, without the marshes of the Atlantic coast, or swamps of our Mississippi country. A country, too, with geographical advantages for extended commerce, greater than the European or American side of the Atlantic; and, from its soil and climate, as well adapted to the culture of the sugar-cane as Louisiana, and superior to Mississippi for cotton. It is said that three thousand pounds can be raised to the acre. For tobacco it is equal to Kentucky in weight and quantity, and to Virginia in fineness. The average crop of Indian corn is from sixty to one hundred bushels to the acre. Oats are indigenous to the country; and wheat grows most luxuriantly. As a grazing country it is equalled only by the pampas of South-America; even now cattle and horses roam wild in countless herds.

In reply to the question, why so lovely a portion of country has not ere this been settled, it is said, the same question might fifteen years since have been asked concerning Texas, or five years since of Wisconsin. The misgovernment of Mexico, the lack of energy, and the small share of civilized inhabitants, are cited as the chief reasons.

GOVERNORS OF THE U. S. A. AND TERRITORIES.—1846.

WITH THEIR TERMS OF OFFICE AND SALARIES.

States.	Governors.	Term expires.	Salary.
Maine	Hugh J. Anderson,	1847	$1,500
New-Hampshire	John H. Steele,	1846	1,000
Vermont	William Slade,	1846	750
Massachusetts	George N. Briggs,	1847	2,500
Rhode-Island	Charles Jackson,	1846	400
Connecticut	Roger S. Baldwin,	1846	1,100
New-York	Silas Wright,	1847	4,000
New-Jersey	Charles C. Stratton,	1848	2,000
Pennsylvania	Francis R. Shunk,	1848	3,000
Delaware	Thomas Stockton,	1849	1,333
Maryland	Thomas G. Pratt,	1847	4,200
Virginia	William Smith,	1849	3,333
North-Carolina	William A. Graham,	1848	2,000
South-Carolina	William Aikin,	1846	3,500
Georgia	George W. Crawford,	1847	3,500
Alabama	Joshua L. Martin,	1847	3,500
Mississippi	Albert G. Brown,	1846	3,000
Louisiana	Alexander Mouton,	1846	6,000
Arkansas	Thomas S. Drew,	1848	2,000
Tennessee	Aaron V. Brown,	1847	2,000
Kentucky	William Owsley,	1848	2,500
Ohio	Mordecai Bartley,	1846	1,500
Indiana	Thomas J. Whitcomb,	1846	1,500
Illinois	Thomas Ford,	1846	1,000
Missouri	John C. Edwards,	1848	1,500
Michigan	Alpheus Felch,	1848	1,500
Florida	William D. Moseley,	1847	2,500
Texas	General Henderson	1848	
Territories.			
Iowa	James Clark,	1847	2,500
Wisconsin	Henry Dodge,	1847	2,500

VIEW OF EUROPE.—States, Capitals, Reigning Sovereigns, &c.

State.	Population.	Ruler.	Accession.	Age.	Religion.	Capital.	Pop. of Cap.
Austria	36,950,401	Emp. Ferdinand	1835	42	Catholic	Vienna	333,818
Baden	1.441.319	G. dk Leop'ld Fr.	1830	40	Evangelical.	Mannheim	21.650
Bavaria	4,370,977	King Louis	1825	39	"	Munich	118.000
Belgium	4,242,600	" Leopold	1831	40	Lutheran	Brussels	130.000
Brunswick	48.000	Duke William	1831	25	Lutheran	Brunswick	33,450
Denmark	2,131,988	" Christian VIII.	1839	54	"	Copenhag'n	145,000
France	34,213,929	" Louis Philippe	1830	57	Catholic	Paris	1,000,000
Gt. Britain & Ireland	27,019,672	Queen Victoria	1837	18	Protestant Episcopal	London	1,873,676
Greece	926,000	King Otho	1832	17	Catholic	Athens	15,000
Hanover	1,755,5.92	" Ernest Augt's	1827	66	Protestant	Hanover	40,000
Hesse Cassel	740,911	Elector Wm. II.	1821	44	Reformed	Hanau	15,000
Holland, or Netherlands	2,865,749	King William I.	1840	48	Reformed	The Hague	60,000
Ionian Isles, (Republic)	208,100	Protection of Gt. Britain	1817		Greek Ch.	Corfu	17,000
Lucca	168,198	Dk. Chas. Louis	1824	24	Catholic	Lucca	24,000
Modena	403,000	Dk. Francis IV.	1815	35	Catholic	Modena	27,000
Nassau	386,221	Dk. Adolphus	1839	22	Evangelical.	Wiesbaden	25,000
Parma	465,673	Ds. Maria Louisa	1814	22	Catholic	Parma	36,000
Portugal	3,727,103	Queen Maria II.	1826	7	Catholic	Lisbon	298.000
Prussia	14,987,949	Kg. Fd. Wm. IV.	1840	45	Evangelical.	Berlin	311,491
Papal States	2,732,436	Pope Greg. XVI.	1831	65	Catholic	Rome	224,000
Russia	48,000 000	Emp. Nicholas I.	1825	29	Greek Ch.	St. Ptrsb'rg	445,514
Sardinia	4,168,797	Kg. Chas. Albert	1834	32	Catholic	Turin	143,000
Saxony	1,706,276	" Frederick	1836	39	"	Dresden	74,122
Two Siciles	7,975,850	" Ferdinand II.	1830	20	"	Naples	410,000
Spain	12,286,941	Queen Isabella II.	1833	3	"	Madrid	2.0,000
Sweden and Norway	4,220,266	King Oscar I.	1844	45	Lutheran	Stockholm	81,638
Switzerland (Republic)	2,125,480	22 Cantons	1831		Protestant	Bern	20,000
Turkey	9,545 000	Sul. Abd'l Medjid	1839	16	Mohamed'n.	Constantipl	800,000
Tuscany	1,436,785	Gr. dk. Leopl'd II.	1824	26	Catholic	Florence	80,000
Wurtemberg	1,713,518	Kg. William	1816	35	Lutheran	Sttutgard	40,000